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AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND

INSTRUCTION,

FOR

THE YEAR 1833.

EDITED BY

WILLIAM C. WOODBRIDGE.

VOL. III.

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ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

JANUARY, 1833.

Art. I. — Lecture before the American Institute.

By Francis C. Gray.

Introductory Discourse delivered before the American Institute of Instruct at their Third Annual Meeting, Aug. 23, 1832.

MR. PRESIDENT AND GENTLEMEN,

Why are we here? That the members of this Institute sho meet together to communicate the results of their reflections, i impart the fruits of their observation and experience to each otl is indeed one of the main objects of your Association. But v these open doors, this general invitation, this mixed assembl And why this discourse from one, who has not the honor to be your number, and who is not particularly acquainted with the s ject of education in theory, nor at all conversant with it in practi Unquestionably it was your purpose, that I should speak, not so m for you, to any one of whom, on such a topic, it would rather be privilege to listen, as for those, who are assembled here by your i tation; that I should present those general views, which thou trite and familiar, no doubt, to yourselves, are yet the most app priate to so promiscuous an audience; leaving the scientific inve gation of the several topics, which invite your attention at present session, with those, to whom they have respectively b assigned, on due consideration of the peculiar means of informat possessed by each.

establishment of Seminaries for Teachers, both male and female— the propositions for others, and the strong expressions of opinion in their favor, are not less cheering. Surely there cannot be a greater inconsistency, than in attempting to promote education, to neglect to provide *qualified educators*.

The multiplication of school books, while it has been attended with some serious evils, indicates equally an increased demand, and urges the necessity of more full preparation for the office, that teachers may be enabled to *appreciate*, and to *use*, the valuable improvements which have thus been elicited. Then, and not till then, can the chaff be separated effectually from the wheat; and the publication of poor or useless works be checked.

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To embody the feelings and wishes thus exhibited, and to *bring them into action, in the right direction*, is now the important point. To this we have devoted our imperfect efforts; and to this we are prepared to devote them, if others are willing to aid us in discharging the obligations incurred by our past labors.

Our general views we have expressed in various ways. The past volumes of the work will show, that while we would not recklessly destroy, we are anxious to see great and extensive reforms — that while we deprecate premature and irregular measures, whose results can only be abortive, we believe active and zealous efforts are necessary, in organizing and employing the friends of the cause; and that we consider moral and religious instruction an indispensable part of that education which prepare any youth to be men and citizens.*

In this view, no single indication is more promising, to the best interests of our country, than the progress of *Sunday Schools*, and the enlistment of 100,000 of our fellow citizens in teaching moral and religious truth gratuitously. The amount of zeal and talent engaged in this cause, affords good security that the system will be improved where it may yet be defective; and it will certainly give an impulse to common education.

We have given but a hasty sketch of the general progress of education, but it is enough to encourage its friends: and the interest which is awakened will, we believe, support one who could enter, unincumbered, on the publication of a work like the present, even if we are obliged to leave it.

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In the language of a late eloquent discourse, 'Man may master nature to become in turn its slave.'— '*Civilization*, so far from being able of itself to give moral strength and elevation, *includes causes of degradation*, which nothing but *the religious principle* can withstand. This gives life, strength, elevation to the mind. It has accomplished more; has strengthened man to do and to suffer more than any other principle. And in speaking of religion, we mean Christianity — the religion of the Bible. In the language of the same writer, 'We know no other religion; for whatever of truth we find in other systems is but a faint anticipation or reflection of this.' It is in the Bible we find the only permanent charter of liberty: the only principle which makes us truly free in teaching us to disregard all the vain promises and threatenings of man in view of the protection of an Almighty hand, and the retributions of another world. He whose hopes and fears terminate in anything short of Deity, or rest on anything but the assurances of his word, is ever in slavery to the influence of man, and the uncertainties of time.

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any science and the public, is highly useful to both. It tends to prevent the former from being entangled and lost in the mysteries of technical subtlety, and acquaints the latter with the object and character of the science, thus vindicating and recommending its pursuit. When however, it is attempted to detail the specific processes and precise rules of an abstruse science, by means of a mere catechism, and to make a royal road to knowledge for all the world to walk in, without care and without effort, the result and the whole result is, that we exchange one sort of obscurity for another. We get vagueness instead of mystery, and the pedantry of ignorance for the pedantry of learning.

This bold spirit of inquiry, which, when rightly directed, produces inestimable good, and, like every other power entrusted to man, when abused, proportionate evil; is, at this time, directed to no subject more generally or more eagerly, than to our established systems of education. The attempts which have been made, in modern times, to bring about beneficial and permanent revolutions in the political and civil organization of nations, to dissolve society into its elements and to reconstruct it on a better model, have been attended with so much suffering and so little success, as to convince reflecting men in general, that a thorough reform in the whole structure of any community is not likely to be peacefully and completely accomplished, by the generation, in which it is first undertaken, and that the mass of those, who have been trained up with exclusive reference to one state of society, are hardly capable of administering or enjoying one totally different; and hence the improvement of education has come to be regarded by many as the first certain and safe step to all radical and permanent improvements in the condition of men. Here it is, that he must take his stand, who seeks at the present day to move the world.

Under these circumstances, it is a subject of congratulation for us, that an Association has been established here, calculated and competent, within the proper sphere of its influence, to direct the spirit of inquiry on this important subject in the true path, and invigorate it by united exertions. Who, while they are endeavoring to accumulate such knowledge of facts with regard to education, as may deserve, when properly arranged and classified, to be considered as constituting a science, submit the general objects, principles and results of their labors to the public in a form not only intelligible, but attractive; and at the same time, subject those principles, and the systems and processes, which are worthy of such examination, to strict scrutiny, and varied experiment, conducted by persons competent for the task. Who mean, that the science to be established by them, shall approve itself, in all its great features, to the common judgment of mankind, and shall also, even in its minutest details, bear the test of the closest scientific investigation.

Gentlemen, a mighty revolution is going on round us; involving not only the fortunes of dynasties, the forms of governments and the distribution of political power, but the whole structure and organization of society; and destined to produce lasting and unalterable effects on the character and condition of our race. So great is the abundance, and so general the diffusion of the means of subsistence in civilized communities, at the present day; and such are the facilities for acquiring and imparting information on all subjects, that active and intelligent minds, in every condition, have now the opportunity, as they always have the disposition, to set themselves to thinking and communicating their thoughts to each other. The first lesson they have learned is their own power, their command over that public opinion, which rules the world. And accordingly opinion no longer submits to authority. Nothing is left unquestioned. The ancient landmarks have ceased to be respected for their antiquity. Their very foundations are scrutinized. It is not enough now, to say of any custom or establishment, that it was always so, or that it was founded and maintained by the wisdom of our ancestors. Men begin to feel the truth of the maxim, that the respect, which youth owes to age, is not due from a generation to its predecessors. It was the ancients, who lived in the infancy of the world. And therefore they wanted that experience, from which, among individuals, age derives its authority. It is we, who live in its old age, or rather, as we flatter ourselves, in its full maturity. And hence, as we have more experience than they had, and do not admit, that we have less ability, we claim the right to rejudge their judgments, and to criticise and reform their institutions. The claim is in substance just. And when it is rightly understood and correctly exercised, it will produce the greatest benefits. But when those, who exercise it, assume that they are more capable of judging, not only than any preceding generation, but than all generations, and especially when they shut their eyes to that very experience, on which alone their claim to superiority is founded, it may, it must lead to incalculable mischief.

The mysteries of learning also are regarded with as little respect, as the authority of antiquity. Although the adepts in science may still use technical terms, in their intercourse with each other, and indeed in most cases must do so, in order to speak with sufficient accuracy, they are no longer permitted to palm off such terms upon the public, thus ostentatiously veiling their knowledge, or sometimes perchance their ignorance; but are justly required, on all occasions, to speak common sense in language intelligible to their hearers. Properly applied, this too will produce immense advantage. The general principles and grand results of a science, when stripped of all technicality and presented in a definite form to the common judgment of mankind, are subjected to a new test of their truth and value. Such intercourse, real intercourse, between adepts in

character what it may, more conspicuous and decisive. A service may be thus rendered to the world like that rendered to it by the obstinate perseverance of the alchymists; which, though it did not lead to the discovery of the philosopher's stone they sought for, yet contributed not a little to the production of a treasure far more precious to mankind, — the science of chemistry.

So far is education from having yet attained the character of a science, that men, eminent men, are not yet agreed as to its object. Milton proposes it as the aim of the scheme recommended by him, "to fit a man to perform justly, skilfully and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war." A glorious vision, and well worthy of the lofty imagination of its author; but incapable of being realized among any civilized people. The savage may indeed master all the knowledge of his tribe, and fit himself for all its offices. But as society becomes cultivated and refined, the various offices of peace and war become more and more numerous, diversified and difficult, till it is altogether impossible for any one man, in the course of a long life, to fit himself for them all, or even for any considerable portion of them. Reduced within narrower limits, this scheme would be substantially the same, as that, which proposes for its object, the complete and harmonious development of all the faculties. If this be understood, in its obvious sense, to mean, that the human faculties should be developed in a certain fixed relation to each other, under all circumstances, and that a man should be trained up so as to become a perfectly symmetrical being, entire and self-dependent, it seems hardly less visionary than the plan of Milton. And to what end should this be done, since the various avocations of different individuals, by calling into exercise various faculties, must speedily destroy this perfect symmetry in each? If however, we understand it, as perhaps we should do, to mean only, that each faculty should be so far developed, as to be capable at all times of healthy and vigorous action, this is undoubtedly the first object of early education, both private and public. It may be and often is combined with that of communicating the knowledge most important to be remembered. But I do not know that this connexion is invariable, and that the knowledge most likely to be useful in after life is that, which will, in all cases, best exercise the faculties of youth. All analogy is against such an assumption. In gymnastics, which are admitted to develope and invigorate the powers of the body more uniformly and effectually than the ordinary occupations of life, much is learned, which there is no expectation of practising afterwards. And besides, for two persons in similar situations and destined to the same pursuit, the same knowledge must be equally useful, and yet their minds, from some difference, original or acquired, may need very different discipline. Let any man moreover reflect, how very

An Association, whose great object is to be practically useful, will naturally first direct its attention to the prevalent errors of the day. Among these, there are few more prominent, than the multiplicity and variety of new schemes for education, and the extravagant importance attached to many of them by their respective adherents. It is probably owing to the intense interest felt in this subject, that many, impatient of the slow process of accumulating facts by observation and experiment, the only one, by which a science, worthy of the name, can be established, have published systems founded on their own solitary experience, or on assumed principles. And to the same cause we may ascribe the extravagant zeal, with which those systems have often been supported. One practical disadvantage resulting from this is, that it sometimes causes particular modes and processes of education, which really possess intrinsic merit, to be misapplied or carried beyond their just limits, thus immediately producing inconvenience, and tending ultimately to bring that merit into question. To teach writing by means of the black board, directing the pupil to copy, with his pen, the letters inscribed upon it, reducing their size but preserving their proportions, seems to be a misapplication of that useful instrument. And however excellent the system of mental arithmetic, as it is called, may be as a discipline for the minds of children, surely they exaggerate its importance, who would make it a complete substitute for the five good old rules. Another disadvantage occasioned by an undue attachment to general systems is, that it tends to withdraw the attention too much from the personal qualifications of teachers, which must always, or at least in the present state of the science, be far more important than the mode of instruction. Let me not be understood to represent all systems as equal or unimportant. The arguments, which have been urged to that effect, are by no means satisfactory. True it is that no system can counteract the diversities of natural talent, or prevent the operation of those unforeseen and uncontrollable accidents, which occasionally defeat all our precautions. But what then? Since the seed is cast abroad on every variety of soil, it may sometimes fall among weeds, at the roadside, or upon the rock; and sometimes its fruit, even when it appears whitening for harvest, may be destroyed by a secret defect, or by an unexpected calamity; and thus the toil of the husbandman may be rendered vain. But who shall therefore say, that his art is futile?

But the multiplicity and variety of the schemes suggested for the improvement of education may be productive of much good, if the operation of each be regarded as a series of experiments, of which the precise results are to be observed and recorded as facts conducive to the improvement of the science. And in this point of view, the zeal and enthusiasm with which they are supported, may be regarded as useful, tending to exhibit more completely whatever of truth they contain, and to make their results, be their

character what it may, more conspicuous and decisive. A service may be thus rendered to the world like that rendered to it by the obstinate perseverance of the alchymists; which, though it did not lead to the discovery of the philosopher's stone they sought for, yet contributed not a little to the production of a treasure far more precious to mankind, — the science of chemistry.

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much of his habits of thought and of action, of study, of feeling, and of self-control, can be traced back to the days of his boyhood; and how very little of his knowledge.

But the edueation, which accomplishes no more, than to bring the faculties of the body and the mind into a healthy state, is equally adapted to all times and places; and has little else to do, than to remove improper restraints; since all these faculties, if secured from pernicious influences and allowed free opportunity for exercise, will grow up, in the ordinary course of nature, in a healthy and vigorous state, under almost any circumstances. If it were possible to suppose, that education should stop here, and send forth its pupil with a healthy body and a healthy mind, but altogether uninstructed, he would be equally fit, or rather equally unfit for any state of society. It must go further. It must qualify him to hold a place in the particular community, in which his lot is cast. Now in this view of education, is regard to be had mainly to the benefit of the individual or to the benefit of society; — to his cultivation and improvement as an insulated being, or to the advantage of the community in which he lives?

This is the question. It seems to have been originally suggested by a consideration of the effect of what is called the division of labor in mechanical pursuits, which is to render each individual better fitted for his particular task, and less fitted for any other, while the advantage resulting to society from this harmonious combination of the labors of all is inconceivably greater than would have been produced by the aggregation of the independent labors of each. It is often understood, with too much reference to the case, which suggested it, as a question between the general intellectual improvement of the individual, and his attaining such skill in his particular occupation, as may most advance the wealth of the community. If it be thus understood, the whole aim of our systems and institutions should be to promote the improvement of the individual. But this is altogether too narrow a view of the subject. It ought to be considered, on the one hand, that the individual is to be fitted, by education, not merely for his art or profession, but for all his social duties; and, on the other, that the advantage of society does not consist in wealth alone, but in the improvement and happiness of all its members; and viewed in this light, the difference between aiming at the one and at the other, becomes so minute, as to be almost evanescent, and to render it a matter of little practical importance how the question is decided.

It ought also to be considered, that the mind is not confined to one narrow and precise path, in which alone it can move with ease and safety; but that it may engage in any one of a multitude of pursuits, and may exercise and improve mainly any one of its faculties, if not without diminishing that exact symmetry, which constitutes ideal perfection, yet, at least, without impairing that healthy

and vigorous action, which is the only practical good to be attained under any system. Happy for us that it is so; — for so various are the states of society and the conditions of life, in which men are placed, that occupations, at one time essential to the happiness, and even to the safety of the individual and of the community, are rendered entirely superfluous by a change of circumstances; and other occupations, calling into exercise and mainly developing different faculties, become all-important.

Since then a great variety of pursuits, appropriate to all possible varieties of human condition, are all equally compatible with the improvement and happiness of men considered as individuals, this seems too indefinite an end to be proposed as the precise object of a distinct science. The great aim therefore, as it seems to me, of the science of education, at least of intellectual education, to which my remarks on this occasion mainly refer, is to promote the advantage of society, to train up men in the knowledge and to the pursuits most useful to the community, in which they are destined to live.

But what is useful knowledge? And what are useful pursuits? No term has been more abused, in treating of education, than this word Utility. In a large and liberal sense, it is indeed the whole object of education. Men should be taught nothing but what is useful, practically useful. And in reasoning from this principle, we shall fall into no error, if we always use the word in this sense. But if the term "practically useful" be confined, as it has sometimes been, to those occupations, which tend to supply our physical wants merely, then utility is not the sole, nor even the highest object of education. Undoubtedly, when the acquisition of the means of subsistence comes into direct competition with the acquisition of anything else, so that one of them only can be enjoyed, the former must be preferred, and every possible exertion must be made to secure it. But to suppose, that our exertions are to terminate here, is to mistake the means of living for the end of life. We must indeed have food, and shelter, and clothing, in order to live. But wherefore do we live? Surely not to accumulate more of these than we can possibly make use of. There would be neither utility nor enjoyment in this. Probably there never was a community, in which all the efforts of its members were constantly requisite to supply their own physical wants. Certainly we are not such a one. The dictate of nature to the individual is the rule for society. He is impelled to satisfy his bodily wants by irresistible instinct. But this done, he is impelled to exercise and indulge his intellectual faculties by a craving as instinctive and as irresistible as the cravings of the body. He is conscious that by this indulgence and exercise, those faculties are nourished, strengthened and exalted; and he feels that in gratifying and improving

them, he is enjoying the purest pleasure. He knows also, that he is thus fulfilling one of his highest duties; for there is a voice within, which tells him so, independently of all reasoning. It is true indeed, that these faculties might be employed by him in cultivating the arts, which tend ultimately to promote physical comfort alone. But it is neither possible nor desirable, that the thoughts and the labors of all men should be devoted to this single object. The result would be to heap up more of their productions than could possibly be consumed. These arts, it is admitted, must first be sufficiently provided for. And the persons engaged in them are certainly usefully employed. But not more usefully, nor more practically in any just sense of the term, than those who are engaged in pursuits, the only aim of which is to satisfy our intellectual wants, and improve our intellectual nature.

These positions seem hardly to need illustration. But the want of a distinct apprehension of them has led to serious mistakes with regard to the proper objects of education, and especially to an erroneous estimate of the value of classical learning. It may therefore be not inappropriate to illustrate them by shewing their application to this branch of knowledge.

The structure of the human frame alone is sufficient to shew, notwithstanding the speculations of the Philosophers, that the social state is the state of nature. The human mind proves this still more strongly. Its necessary food, that which it craves and by which it is nourished, is intercourse with other minds. By his intellectual nature man is not only united with his contemporaries, but bound up into one great society with his whole race. He is connected with the past and with the future. He can "hold high converse with the mighty dead," and send down his own voice to the remotest generations. His highest privilege and enjoyment is to associate with those distinguished by moral and intellectual excellence, either in his own age or in preceding times. Hence the value of an acquaintance with those ancient writers, who have been pronounced by the unanimous opinion of subsequent generations to be the light and the glory of our race; "by the diligent perusal of whose works, men are led and drawn in willing obedience, inflamed with the study of learning and the admiration of virtue; stirred up with high hopes of living to be brave men and worthy patriots, dear to God and famous to all ages."

But I will not dwell on these general considerations, simply remarking, that to call studying the works of these men learning Greek and Latin, is as preposterous, as it would be to call the study of Locke and Milton learning English.

Neither will I attempt to examine or even to notice the various objections, which have, at different times, been urged against classical learning; since its adversaries among us seem lately to have

retreated to the single position, that whatever may be the advantage of studying the works of the ancient writers, it can be obtained through the medium of translations. This is their strong-hold. Now if we studied those works only for the facts and the arguments found in them, the position might be maintained. We might even get these more easily still by having the facts reduced to chronological tables, and the arguments to a series of syllogisms. But it is not so. We study them, as the most appropriate discipline for the mind of youth at the period, when they are generally read, inciting it to strenuous exertion, but not eluding its grasp; offering far more than a mere exercise for the memory, yet tasking the higher powers of the intellect without *over*-tasking them. We study them, as the best means of acquiring an insight into the nature and power of language in all its generality, and of obtaining a more complete command over our own language, by the practice, in translating, of applying it to processes of generalization, and to trains of thought and sentiment, which we are fully competent to comprehend, but not at that age, if at any, to mature or even to originate. We study them, because the unequalled grace, simplicity and vigor of their style tend to improve our taste, and because its admirable precision accustoms us to accurate expression, which has much to do with accurate thinking; since words are not only the vehicles, but the instruments of thought. These advantages however, though of the highest importance, can only be indicated, since the investigation of them would lead to discussions too extensive, abstruse and minute to be compatible with the nature or with the limits of this discourse. We study them also for the emotions, which they excite in us. The firm purpose, the high resolve, the generous self-devotion, which they exhibit, are expressed with such felicity and force as cannot fail to impress them most deeply on the mind of the reader. And if it be one fitted for their reception, though they may be long forgotten, they will not be lost. When the sentiments inspired by a familiarity with such works shall be recalled to him, by the natural association of ideas, on some occasion proper for their exercise, they will spring up with all their original power, like the voice of a Divinity within him, to banish doubts, support endurance, or animate courage. There is no student among us, imperfect as our knowledge of the classics generally is, who does not constantly feel, that their sentiments are conveyed with a simplicity, precision and power, which it is impossible for him to transfer to his own language. And no wonder; since among all the translators of modern times, many of them among the most eminent writers of their respective countries, there is not one, who professes to have accomplished it.

Take even the modern languages, in translating from any one of which, into another, it is admitted that we approach much more nearly to the original than in translating from the more perfect lan-

guages of antiquity. How happens it, that, of the most admired epic poems, works read again and again by all, in whose language they are written, and never without intense admiration and delight, sometimes exciting them even to tears, not one has ever been known, in translation, to produce any such effect, or even to have become tolerably popular? Let any man read a French translation of Shakspeare, either the literal translation of a few celebrated scenes contained in the works of Voltaire, or the free translation of Ducis. The perusal will undoubtedly excite strong emotions. But they will be very different emotions from those excited by the original. Or selecting a more favorable example, examine the translations from the same author by Schiller or by Schlegel, which possess the highest merit, exhibiting the thoughts and sentiments of the original with wonderful precision of outline. How often do even these fail to catch those delicate shades of expression, which, slight as they are, give to several of the finest passages their peculiar tone of feeling, and invest the airy nothing with identity and existence; themselves almost as evanescent and as imperceptible, yet as potent, as the breath of life? The truth is, that the most idiomatic expressions are always the most forcible, and at the same time the least capable of being translated. Select any of those pathetic Scottish phrases, which have become as familiar to us as our own language, or any of the striking national expressions so often found in the Waverley novels, and translate them as accurately as possible into modern English; and what are your versions? They present the same idea. But do they touch the heart?

The mere tone and manner, in which passages from our own authors are read, often give us a new conception of their force and even of their meaning. And shall not the happy arrangement and nice transition, the terseness, simplicity, grace and harmony, which are from their very nature instranslatable, shall not these affect us? It is said, that Æschines, while giving lectures on rhetoric at Rhodes, after his banishment, read to his audience the oration, which he had delivered in his great contest with Demosthenes, and that it was heard with loud applause. He then read that of his adversary, but was interrupted by shouts of rapture. "What then would you have said," cried he, "what would you have said, had you heard him thunder it?" If it would be absurd to suppose that any man, however perfectly master of the Greek language, could, on reading that oration at this time, feel as they felt, who heard it; it is equally so to suppose that the most perfect translation, which the nature of human language will permit, can convey the same impressions as the original,— the very words and syllables, which he that day uttered. And neither of these suppositions is less absurd, than it would be to imagine, that the same emotions may be ex-

cited by looking on a panorama of Niagara, as by standing on its brink.

If this argument against the classics is valid, then all poetry is worthless, all eloquence, and everything else, which appeals to the taste, the imagination, or the feelings. These can never be rendered in all their clearness and force by a paraphrase; and the translation of them can never be anything more than a paraphrase. As long as it shall be important to society that men should exist, skilled in the arts of speaking and writing, so long the classics must be read. Such men must read them, for the same reason, that those, who cultivate the imitative arts, study the remains of ancient sculpture and architecture. They must be read also by those, who wish to possess a high relish for the beauties of similar productions, or an accurate judgment of their merits. The public is benefitted by the increase of the writer's, artist's and critic's skill, not merely because the works of literature and of art are thereby improved, but because the taste of the whole community is raised to a higher standard, through their influence, and thus made capable of higher enjoyment. If the case stopped here, all, who allow that the remains of ancient art should be studied by artists, and by those who would appreciate their works, must allow also, that the remains of ancient literature should be studied by literary men, and by those, who would appreciate theirs. But it does not stop here. Admit all, that the warmest admirers of the fine arts will claim for them; that they exalt the imagination, interest the feelings, gratify and purify the taste, soften the manners and subdue their fierceness, and give grace and refinement to every condition of social life. The arts of elegant writing and eloquent speaking do this also. And to them, these effects, which are the ultimate end of the fine arts, — a worthy and an elevated end, — to them these effects are but the means of attaining an end still more exalted and more noble; that of subduing the passions, purifying the heart, elevating the character, and sometimes rousing the whole man and all within him to the most intense exertions of intellect, and the highest efforts of virtue. Surely nothing, which has the slightest tendency to give perfection to arts like these, can be useless or indifferent to society.

Not that the classics should be studied by every man. No one branch of knowledge can claim this preëminence. But they should be studied by those, who would imitate or fully relish the peculiar excellences, of which they are the most perfect models. Not that this study is to be deemed, as it once was, the sum and substance of all learning. But it ought to be numbered among the pursuits of a refined and prosperous people. Five or six centuries ago, the ancient languages were the keys to all knowledge, for no other language then contained anything worth knowing; and scholastic institutions, which are too apt to adhere to ancient opinions, con-

tinued to regard them as such, long after they had ceased to be so. Hence, at a subsequent period, their value was greatly overrated in comparison with other branches of knowledge, the offspring of later times; and the consequence has been that, by a natural reaction in popular sentiment, they are at the present day esteemed too little, and are regarded by many as absolutely worthless. But those, who entertain a liberal and enlightened view of utility, will always allow to the study of them, in every highly cultivated community, a place, and an honorable place, among the occupations useful to the public.

I have dwelt thus long on this topic, Gentlemen, not only as the most striking illustration I could present of the nature of that utility, which should be the object of education; but because even this humble attempt to correct a prevalent error may give to my remarks on this occasion something of a practical tendency, an object, which ought to be aimed at in all those public discourses, the frequency of which seems to be characteristic of our country.

Since the end of education is the advantage of society, it must adapt itself to the condition of society, and as this changes and improves, must be so modified as to supply its varying and increasing wants. The division of labor is as important in intellectual as in mechanical pursuits, and it should be guided by liberal and comprehensive views, looking not merely to the wealth and physical comfort of the community, but to its general welfare. As civilization advances, this division must become more and more minute, so that every separate branch of knowledge may be carried to a higher and higher stage of improvement.

This science also must have regard not only to the advancement of knowledge by the division of labor, but to the diffusion of that knowledge, and the distribution of its fruits among the people. To this end, some general idea of the peculiar object and character of every intellectual pursuit should be made familiar to the minds of all men, and the means of prosecuting any one of them be placed within the reach of all. There are few, whatever may be their occupations, who are not able, by the diligent employment of their leisure hours, to make themselves well acquainted with the principles of some one, at least, of the liberal sciences or elegant arts. And the more extensively and effectually this is done, the more is the intellectual character of the whole people elevated.

Under the influence of these impressions, we cannot but feel a lively interest in the efforts, which are now making in England to provide the working classes in that country with the means of intellectual improvement, and esteem the hours devoted to such improvement to be occupied as usefully for the public, as those, which are passed at the plough or in the workshop: though I must still insist, that the shepherd's boy, who gave all his leisure time to the

study of the classics, was as worthily employed as the mechanic, celebrated by Lord Brougham, who gave his leisure to the study of Entomology.

But while we applaud and seek to imitate those distinguished men in England, who are endeavoring to render every branch of knowledge as accessible, as possible, to the diligent study of every member of the community, we should be careful not to overlook the prominent defect of education among ourselves.

This is, not that it wants extent or variety; but that, with reference to the present state of society, it wants *thoroughness*, especially in our higher seminaries of education. These have, no doubt, been constantly improving. But society has improved still faster. The public demand for a higher state of culture in every department of education is obvious, general, imperative. It must be satisfied. This can be done in no other way than by raising the whole standard of education. The highest must rise still higher. Those, who go furthest, must advance still further. And all the rest must follow. The most obvious and natural mode of producing this result is to begin at the top; to improve the condition of our highest seminaries. Let me invite your attention to this subject, not as deserving any preëminence over the other topics, which have been and are about to be presented to you, but as worthy of sharing your regard with them, and because I do not perceive, that it has at any of your sessions been specially submitted to your consideration.

The University in our neighborhood was founded, as you are all aware, only a few years after the first settlement of the country, with a view, like most others of so early a date, to instruction in Theology. One hundred and ninety years ago, the requisites for admission were that the applicant should be able to read Tully or some other classical Latin author into English, and to speak Latin readily, and write it correctly both in prose and verse, and to decline the Greek nouns and verbs. For at that time and till nearly a century afterwards, Latin was used by scholars of all countries both in conversation and correspondence. It was in fact, during this period, the living language of learned men. The literary requisitions for the Bachelor's degree were that the student should be able to translate the scriptures both of the Old and the New Testament from the original tongues into Latin, and to resolve them logically; and should be versed in the principles of natural and moral philosophy. Their logic and philosophy were those of the day, and an idea of the extent, to which these were cultivated may be gathered from the theses published and defended at the first Commencement, in 1642, which were printed at the time in England, and are preserved by Hutchinson in his History. The same system continued till the beginning of the last century, in the

course of which the whole plan of education was entirely changed and brought to the state, in which it continued for many years previous to 1805. Since that time, attempts have been constantly making there, and in all the colleges in New England to improve education, by increasing the number of teachers and introducing new text-books, so as to adapt it more and more to the condition and wants of the community, and render it more and more practically useful.

But in one respect, and it is that, to which I would particularly call your attention, the mode of instruction is in all the same, and has been so, I believe, from the beginning. The students are divided into classes, according to the term of their residence in college, and all the members of each class receive the same instruction and perform the same exercises. Now the disadvantage resulting from this is, that as there must be great diversity of talent among them, the task assigned cannot be an appropriate lesson for all. If we suppose it adapted, as it no doubt generally is, to those, who hold a middle rank, then those of inferior capacity, who cannot master it, even if they do not sit down as they will be too apt to do in discouragement and despair, will either endeavor to conceal their ignorance by tasking their memory, or they will blunder on to the end without exercising any of their faculties, and without obtaining any substantial information. And in either case, they will be likely to acquire bad habits of study, if not of conduct. Let the best happen, that can happen, and they must lose at least their time. And what a time? The spring of life, on which all its hopes depend, cut out of their existence. On the other hand, those, whose superior abilities or peculiar aptitude for a particular study enable them to perform their task in it so quickly, as to leave them much leisure, supposing they escape the temptation to engage in frivolous and unmanly pursuits, will probably acquire a habit of desultory reading, or should any of them engage systematically in some fit occupation, will want the incitements, by which their exertions are usually animated, and the instructions of competent teachers. It is obvious that no variation in the amount of duty required of the students would remove these evils.

Yet perhaps a remedy is not impracticable. Let the ordinary tasks assigned to each class be such, as any student fit for a collegiate education, can perform with due diligence in the time appropriated for study; and let instruction be also provided in every department of learning, for those, who may wish to prosecute any one beyond the required course. Allow each scholar the opportunity at fixed times of entering his name as a voluntary student in any one or more of these departments, which he may select, with the single restriction (necessary to prevent capricious changes and desultory study) that whatever course he has once undertaken shall

be pursued, till he has completed it. And to insure punctual attendance and diligence, let him receive the same marks for merit and the same censures for absence and neglect as in the ordinary course of study. In the distribution of college honors and rewards also of all kinds, let the same regard be paid to proficiency in the studies thus voluntarily chosen, as to proficiency in the regular collegiate course. It cannot be doubted, I think, that the standing of the students in the voluntary classes, in which they would naturally be arranged on this system, would be the great test of scholarship, and that the students, feeling this, would embrace the opportunity thus afforded them for improvement with eagerness.

The experiment is not altogether untried. In the department of the Modern Languages in Harvard University, a similar plan has for some years past been pursued with complete success. All attendance in that department is voluntary. But those, who attend during a certain period, are excused from a like amount of study in other branches. These are the regular students, and the time thus allowed is sufficient for them ordinarily to obtain a satisfactory knowledge of two foreign languages, so as to read them with facility, and to write them with tolerable correctness. But those, who can find leisure from all their other college duties, may receive instruction at other times, and the number of these is often as great as that of the regular students, and lately even greater. In this way some individuals have acquired five languages, French, German, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese.

If this system were extended, facilitated and encouraged in the manner above proposed, it would deprive those who either cannot or will not succeed in some particular study, of all apology for passing the whole time allotted to that study in idleness. It would also enable each scholar to direct his studies in a great measure with reference to his peculiar taste and talents or to his future pursuits. And it would send forth for the public service some individuals highly accomplished in every department of learning.

In this connexion, it may gratify you to learn, that a department of Philology has recently been established in the University, though it has not yet been long enough in operation to enable us to judge of its success. Its object is to extend the cultivation of classical learning. The course of study, beginning with the senior year, will occupy two years. It will be open to such seniors and graduates as may choose to attend it, and will be conducted with a special view to qualify them for instructors. It is contemplated to add to this department a course of mathematics of the same extent, and directed to the same object.

If this department shall prosper, and shall send forth accomplished teachers, their influence will contribute to raise the standard of education in all our seminaries, and in aid of the efforts now making so successfully in our academies and schools, and of those measures,

which the members of this Institute shall recommend and put in practice, will tend to satisfy the pressing wants of the community.

Your utmost exertions however will not be more than sufficient to keep pace with the progress of our country. I am aware, that we Americans are often ridiculed for dwelling on our progress and our prospects, and reminded that other nations boast of their achievements, and not of their expectations. It is not worth while to boast of either. Though with reference to the subject now under consideration, we might well ask where and by whom the rudiments of knowledge, the elements of intellectual, moral and religious instruction were ever sent down to every fireside, and freely offered without money and without price? Where, but in New England? By whom, but by our fathers?

The opinions of men are undergoing a rapid revolution on these subjects, and the time will soon come, when the credit of this achievement will not be altogether eclipsed by the dazzling triumphs of genius, or the splendor of military success. But you regard it in its true light; and consider all, that has been done in this respect, as nothing but the means of doing more.

All honor to the nations, which have already achieved greatness. Let them exult in their renown unenvied. We are contented with our lot. The age of effort and of advancement is that of enjoyment also, even when it is not that of glory. Strenuous, well-directed, devoted exertion to promote the good of others, — what else is merit? The success of such exertion, — what else is happiness? Gentlemen, by the blessing of God, may that merit and that happiness be yours.

Art. II. — Maternal Influence.

[For the Annals of Education.]

The observation and study of the infant mind are of the first importance in early education. The investigation of the nature and habits of children, is the only sure means of developing the principles and methods of human influence.

The attention now bestowed on children forms an interesting feature of the day. An interest seems to be rekindling, analogous to that which animated the ancient philosophers, and led to such happy results in education. The wisdom and experience, with the principles of a purer philosophy now accumulated on us, enjoin on us the duty of improving the rich inheritance, by drawing from it those treasures which shall not only enrich ourselves, but which shall descend as imperishable wealth to those who are coming after us.

Among the causes which have favored the investigation of the mind, and which promise much for the advancement of education, are *infant schools*. The docility, simplicity, and purity of the infant mind, has been exhibited in these in a most interesting light. They have enlisted the minds of females in favor of early influence. An interest has been awakened in children, and diffused into the nursery. Mothers have derived new ideas on education, and entered with increased intelligence and zeal into the discharge of their duties. The mind of infancy is more duly valued; and cherished by genial influences and appropriate nurture. The infant school has become an assistant, and observatory to the mother; and the season of infancy and childhood, a period of progress and enjoyment.

Much, however, still remains to be done for the young mind — much for mothers and children, before their truest wants shall be supplied. The vast importance of maternal influence must not only be admitted; but the practice of early education essentially improved. Mothers have not as yet been favored with opportunities and attainments for exerting a genial influence on infancy. Children have been imperfectly cultivated. Their lower propensities have gained a supremacy over the higher during the period of weakness and dependence. Vices have thus accumulated on juvenile character, the consequences of which have been visited on the individual and society. The dominion of the appetites and passions over the affections, the understanding and conscience, is but too obvious. It exhibits our signal failure in the guidance of human nature.

To remove these evils, or even to mitigate them is of the first moment to society. Their entire prevention would be hailed as a bright era in the history of man. There is an assurance, in the purified heart, that such an era will arrive; and the dictates of this principle, are sanctioned by the disclosures of faith. *Revelation* has been committed to man for the reformation of error; for the guidance of the mind to truth; for the renovation of perverted natures.

It promises special assistance to the mother. It seconds the intimations of nature, by investing the mother with the prerogative of guiding the infant mind. It calls the little children around the maternal altar to be purified and cherished, by the renovating influences of love and faith.

Christianity, as the purest of influences, has never yet been fully applied to the young mind, by maternal endeavors. Its vivifying spirit has not been diffused throughout all the circumstances and relations of the nursery. Infancy has not been adequately cherished by its influence. Enervating indulgence, or chilling severity, have, in a greater or less degree, sophisticated the juvenile powers;

and the nursery, instead of being the school of virtue, has, too often, become the seminary of vice. The seeds of error and evil have here been sown, the fruits of which afterwards appear, to deform the face of society.

Human character can never assume its purer forms, until the renovating influence of maternal love, uniformly operate on the young mind. We shall look in vain for the fruits of truth and virtue, while we neglect the plants from which these are to spring. The mental soil must be cherished and cultivated by maternal labor, or the fruits will never attain the beauty and maturity of excellence.

Comparatively little has been done heretofore, to aid mothers in the discharge of their duties. The early nurture of the young mind has been greatly disregarded. The season, when influences are operating which modify the child's character for life, has been suffered to pass by disregarded, and impressions thus left to the action of chance and circumstance.

The *books* which have been written for mothers have been generally inadequate. The philosopher has seldom stept into this important field of inquiry, and collected facts and established principles to aid the mother. Books have been limited, in their instructions, to the later stages of influence, or restricted to the physical details of early nurture. The mind is passed over in silence. Mothers are deemed more as the nurses of the child, than as its mental and moral guide; not as agents whose influences operate on the whole nature, and determine the future character and happiness of the child.

The existing forms of *society*, too, by devolving domestic cares upon mothers, exert an influence unfriendly to the development of infancy. The father's employments usually call him from home. Morning and evening are the only periods when his children are benefited by his presence, and influence. Education is devolved upon the mother. The cares of her household withdraw her notice form the child. Other assistance is sought. The maternal office is delegated to the nursery maid, and soon the teacher is called in to aid in instruction. Her best thoughts and freshest affections are called off to other things, and hireling indifference or ignorant selfishness, become substitutes for maternal attention. The renovating influence of the mother's heart falls not on the susceptible nature of the child; and its powers are sophisticated, by indifference and neglect.

An interest in the child's mind, is the only means of successful influence on the part of the mother. The child is her first and chief care; all others are but collateral and secondary. It is by devoting herself to the careful study of this, that she is to gain an intelligent confidence in her labors, and faith in their results.

"The education of man commences under the most sacred and

benign auspices. In confiding it to the heart of a mother, Providence seems to have taken it upon itself. Blessed are the mothers who understand their noble prerogative; blessed are the children who longest reap the benefits of watchfulness and love! All ages ought to find, in *the education of the cradle*, the model of education; but even in those cases where it has been such as to be fit for a model, has it been attentively studied?"

The *infant mind* is a living manifestation of its own true wants, and, therefore, of what the mother is to do for it. For what purpose are the germs of all its *faculties and powers* committed to her, but for her expansion and guidance? This love of action, of amusement, of society, of liberty, of sympathy, of inquiry, and of truth? Why this self-respect, this strong desire of self-direction, this energy of will, this reverence of conscience, of rectitude, of excellence? This subtle invention, this active imagination, those far searching inquiries, extending alike into the future and past? This sagacious reasoning, this discriminating judgment, this freedom from prejudice, this susceptibility to external influence, this docility and faith? Why this sympathy with surrounding circumstances, and events; with nature in her vicissitude of seasons, and diversities of scene, this interest in life and human beings? This irrepressible longing for something purer than it finds around it, this thirsting for enduring happiness, and ideal good?

These are *intimations* of its immortal nature. They are so many voices proclaiming to the mother the imperishable wealth, and spiritual tendencies of the infant mind. They are the stirrings of the divine energy within, urging its way to the Eternal Power whence it came. Her child is seeking the residence of its Father in Heaven; it is performing the work appointed it to do. Through discipline and trial, it is accumulating power to enter upon the manhood of its being, and to complete its nature. To assist these tendencies in their upward progress, is the office of the mother.

But there are other *propensities*, necessary to the child's present existence, which, left unguarded, will degrade its nature. There are appetites and passions, which, in its simplicity and self-ignorance, require discipline and direction, or they may subvert the nobler nature and destroy its unity. — To bring the sensual nature in harmony and accordance with the spiritual, is the great work of the mother. This unattained, all else is of little avail. The sacred depositories within will not have been entered for those preservatives which cherish, those affections which hallow, and those energies which ennoble the soul.

1. The child is endowed with *senses*, particularly vivid and active, and requiring appropriate culture, to fit them for their respective offices. These connect him with the outward world. By these he holds communion with nature. Placed amid various

objects, and sustaining various relations to these, he needs some means of appreciating them, of deriving pleasure, and escaping pain, from their influence. His senses discharge this office. Forms, colors, proportion, vicissitude, are revealed to him by the sense of vision. By his ear he is apprised of sound. His sense of smell transmits the perception of odors. His taste is fitted to appreciate his food, and throughout his material frame is diffused the sense of touch, by which he is still further connected with outward things. The hand, in particular, is placed under his immediate guidance, by which he is enabled more fully to appreciate objects within his reach. To these means of communicating with nature is added the voice, connecting him with his kind by the faculty of speech; and becoming the organ of sympathy and intelligence. By these avenues he is fitted to commune with nature, with others, and with himself. He is in possession of a common language, and is prepared for the acquisitions and endeavors of coming years.

This connexion of the child with the external world, is the origin of knowledge and wisdom. *Creation* is placed before him, in which he is invited to view, as in a mirror, the images of beauty, of love, and of truth.

> "——————————— the babe,
> In the dim newness of its being, feels
> The impulses of sublunary things,
> And all is wonder to the unpractised sense."

Science and art are dependent upon the activity and accuracy of the senses for their first truths, and knowledge and wisdom are based on this primal experience. The aid derived from the agency of the senses is rendered obvious, by reverting to the condition of those, who from infancy, have been deprived of their use. The deaf, the dumb, and the blind, are comparatively shut out from the fields of philosophy. — By cherishing the senses, the child is prepared for acquisition; and it is the mother's office to discipline and mature them by providing circumstances and objects for appropriate observation.

2. The child has *appetites and passions.* These form a new condition of his being, and require faithful discipline and direction. These faculties are designed for preservation and defence. Their office is personal. They have the individual only in charge. Like so many watchful sentinels, they are placed around the child's being to contribute to its support, to guard it from danger, and sustain it in the time of trial.

Though often operating against the better nature, they are still intended as aids to its advancement. Without these, the child's progress would be dubious and unmeasured. The impulse within which urges him upward, would meet with no hindrance; it would

find no incitements; and instead of attaining excellence, as now, through self-direction and self-preparation, he would not experience and appreciate his nature and destiny; there would be no measure, by which to estimate his progress, no means by which his virtue could be originated and disciplined. Like the brute, he would obey every impulse, as the way of excellence. It is by having an element of himself, placed under his guidance, that he is to acquire the power of self-direction, and to appreciate the conditions of his existence. It is this power of self-dominion, this ability to subject one portion of his nature to the control of another, that constitutes the trial of his virtue. It is the trial of self-discipline and of self-control, by which he is designed to rise to the glory of his being, becoming, in the end, an independent, self-moving creature, acknowledging, at all times, the dictates of wisdom, and obedient to the voice of conscience.

To gain this dominion over the lower nature, subjecting it to the guidance of the higher, is the great end of early influence; and the mother is placed beside the child to aid him in attaining it. In his self-ignorance, she is to assist him by her maturer experience. When impelled by appetite and passion, she is to be near to restore him to reason and tranquillity. In his weakness and want, she is to sustain him. If, in his ignorance, he fall, she is to raise and encourage him. If, in his knowledge, he triumph, she is to reward him by fixing in his mind the experience which he has attained in the conflict. She is to aid him, when he is too weak to aid himself. She is to guide his tottering steps along the path, in which he is to ascend the eminence of self-knowledge, and, by faith in his author and experience, look down complacently on himself. Without her aid, how weak is his nature! Without her assistance, how inevitably must he fall! Neglected by her, how great must be his degradation!

3. The child has *affections*. By these he enters upon a new condition of his being. He becomes connected with others. Emerging from the sphere of self in which the appetites and passions confine him, he enters society. He is introduced into the more extended sphere of common charities, and kind offices. Sympathy is awakened in his bosom, and faith dawns in his experience. He is led to regard the welfare and happiness of others. These faculties are the reverse of the appetites and passions; and their cultivation and guidance devolve on the mother. The child's happiness and purity depend on her faithful labors in reference to these.

Without the affections, the child would have no means of communicating with others adequate to the other conditions of his being. Surrounded by society, he would be alone. His outward nature, his appetites and passions, would open before him but a

part of the domain of intelligence, and wisdom. The knowledge of his own mind, which he is to derive by entering into that of others, would be lost to him. The laws of social and moral life would be mysterious and dark to him. Though he might appreciate the works of the material universe, he could not rise to the vivid perception of their Author. Faith could not be enkindled in his bosom. He would be lost in antipathy and apathy. Nature and man would offer no analogies to vivify and inspirit his being.

But, as a provision for the child, the mother is placed beside him, to reveal his affections, and save him from the abyss into which he would inevitably fall without her genial and protecting influence. She teaches him to love, by opening the fountains of affection within him, and fixing his heart on herself. She developes the docility and faith of his nature, by ministering to his wants, and establishing within him a connected and uniform experience.

4. The child has *intellectual powers*, designed to aid him in the acquisition of truth. The senses are ministers in this sacred office; inciting curiosity, observation, inquiry, and preparing the way for the mental faculties to operate with ease and efficiency. The intellectual nature brings the child into the presence and perception of the Creator's works: it enables him to descend into his own being: it measures and identifies his experience. By the mental faculties he extends his inquiries into the past, contemplates the present, anticipates the future, collects, compares, discriminates, combines, judges, reasons, infers, and verifies. By the culture and discipline of these he is to be elevated above local and narrow views, his mind is to be generalized, and he is to be connected with nature, with man, and with himself. He is to experience his mental being, and apply and guide it. He is to become a light to his own feet, and a lamp to his own paths: commencing his intellectual work on surrounding nature, inquiring into the new and mysterious things without and within him, and ascending, by a gradual and faithful progress, to the knowledge of the laws of the universe, and the recognition and love of its Author.

It is in this way that Providence, uninterrupted in its benign course, is accomplishing its silent, unseen, unconscious, though unerring work on the human being, conducting the infant mind, through the vicissitudes of experience, and thus expanding it, at last, into the fulness and consummation of a spiritual existence. And the mother is placed beside the child to coöperate with Providence, guiding him in the way of all truth, lest his faculties fasten on error, and degrade the whole being; lest they become a power to destroy, rather than to save.

5. The child has *moral powers*, which reveal to him his duty; which impress upon him the sense of responsibility. Conscience, if preserved and rectified, by divine truth, speaks to him in a voice

of authority, revealing to him the laws of rectitude, and their accompanying rewards and punishments. It is this which is designed to preside over his whole nature, and preserve its unity and purity. It is this which is to impart self-intelligence, with all its transcendent attainments. By the appropriate culture of this, the child opens within, the fountains of wisdom, and tests and verifies every experience. By this he operates on the will, purifies and determines motives, and establishes a tribunal in the depths of the soul.

It is here that maternal influence is perpetually needed; for, however cultivated the affections and intellect, the want of an active and an accurate conscience, will dim the perfection of the whole being. During the reign of the appetites and passions, it is the mother's influence that is chiefly to sustain the child in the path of rectitude, and keep the "still small voice of conscience," from being stilled and overpowered.

6. The child has *spiritual faculties*, to exalt him beyond the present and seen, into the ideal and future. These are the reaching forth of the mind for something purer and holier than it finds around it; the elements of faith, and hope, and devotion. Piety springs from this source. By the activity of these the child is led to appreciate and experience the truths of revelation, and to repose on the promises and love of the Saviour. By these he is led, in due time, to the altars of religion, and the worship of his Author. There the mother's aid is still required. Without cherishing the faith of her child, she cannot hope for its future happiness, nor confide in its safety.

The development of all these powers in *unity* is necessary to the happiness and strength of the juvenile being. Education is false to the child unless it provide for the whole nature and coöperate with Providence in its consentaneous expansion. As subordinate agents, the human faculties stand around that mysterious energy within, to minister to its wants, to defend it from danger, connect it with society, enrich its mind with ideas, guide it in the path of rectitude, and conduct it to excellence, and heaven. From the appropriate assistance of each in this mutual work, results the symmetry, unity and completeness of character in the adult. And this noble work is entrusted to the mother, during the infancy of humanity.

Such is the nature of the being on whom she is called to act in direct succession from the Deity. Such are the faculties committed to her for nurture and guidance. Such the end and purpose of her endeavors. Her office has its cares, and anxieties, but like all noble trusts, it has, too, its pleasures and rewards, when faithfully and freely discharged.

The performance of such exalted duties implies the possession of much *knowledge* on the part of the mother. But this is attained by the simplest means. Nature has adapted her being to her

condition. Knowledge lies in her deep and intuitive sympathies with her infant. Let her observe and study her child. A true interest and confidence in the young mind, will in due time lead her to the knowledge she seeks. By putting it beyond the power of others essentially to teach her, Providence designs she should learn from herself. The depths of her own being are rich in stores for her child; her child is rich in itself.—The field of maternal duty is to all, at first, but an uncultivated waste; and those who have labored long in it, have as yet attained but little skill to assist those who are entering it. The aid which such can give lies chiefly in pointing out what the mother should avoid, in encouraging her endeavors, in cautioning her not to injure the being of her child. It is chiefly through her own *observation*, *experience*, and *patience*, that success is to be achieved.

Books may, indeed, aid; the *counsels* of others may assist; but unless these are wrought up in her own experience, they will be of little avail. Others may labor; others may study; but not as substitutes for her own labor and study. Her office is personal; it allows no substitute; no hinting; no borrowed wisdom. The little being committed to her is a living volume, spread open before her, in which she is invited to study, and learn for herself. Her child is before her; it sets out, of itself, in the course assigned it. Let her observe its primal efforts, coöperate with their intimations, and thus assist it in finding the residence prepared for it above. By dependence on the promises of faith she may attain this divine result.

Let the mother, then, never despair of her influence. Let her do what she can for her child, and let her not assume what she *cannot* do, till she has tried. In her endeavors, she may find powers revealed to her, of which she was before unconscious; interests and joys of which she before formed no adequate ideas. If cares and obstacles check her course, let her not regard them as insurmountable, but still yield faithful obedience to the impelling sentiment within her, till it shall conduct her beyond the sphere of doubts and difficulties to that of faith and tranquillity, to the reward of maternal love, in the advancement of her child to virtue and truth.

Art. III. — Female College in New Grenada.

[For the Annals of Education.]

[We have for two years solicited communications on the subject of female education, almost in vain. We are happy to begin a new year with an article so interesting as the following; and owe many thanks to the kindness of friends who have furnished it. We hope it will call forth others on this topic which we early presented as one of the most important within the sphere of our labors. — Ed.]

The following Essay, translated from the Spanish, by an untiring friend to the emancipation of the human mind, will undoubtedly be perused with interest. The sentiments on the subject of Female Education are highly creditable to a race long accustomed to regard with reverence the systems of monastic instruction.—It is a singular fact, that the Continent of South America, for ages immersed in darkness, should exhibit to the world, the first example of the establishment of a college for females. — Many nations have taken the lead of New Grenada in the bloody purchase of Liberty, yet while they gave the laurel to their *sons*,—forgot that their *daughters* also, might aid in its preservation.

Ancient Greece was a worshipper of Liberty, but she believed that the sex most deficient in physical force, had no agency in modifying national character. If her Philosophy discovered that *knowledge was power*, it failed in imparting that power to those who moulded the whole mass of mind, in its first formation. Other climes have equally erred in their appropriation of the influence of a sex, to whom Nature has given a feeble hand, but a strong heart. Even in our own land, where Freedom so early erected her firmest altar, — intellectual culture was too long dealt out to woman with a sparing hand.

We cheerfully accord the praise of this preëminence to our brethren of New Grenada. — May their liberality to those who stamp on the melting wax of infancy the deathless seal for good or evil, receive high reward when the elements of their national character, gathering from the chaos of oppression, shall be consolidated in brightness, and beauty, and enduring power.

L. H. S.

EDUCATION IN NEW GRENADA.

[Translated from the Government Gazette of June 24, 1832.]

In consequence of the injurious system pursued by the mother country towards her ancient colonies, the education of the fair sex has been to such an extent neglected by us, that even until within a few years it was an extraordinary thing to meet a woman possessing any knowledge of geography, history, drawing, or any other of those sciences or arts to which their condition would allow them to

devote themselves. The ignorance or the malice of our ancient masters led them to see in women only inferior beings, destined to serve them in their houses, like hired domestics; and we, who have been educated in their customs, and are heirs of their prejudices, have imitated their example. The shout of independence, which excited in the breasts of Colombians all noble sentiments, awakened some philanthropists, it is true, to dedicate themselves to the improvement of the condition of this important portion of society. Their interest and care have produced some good effects; and the relations of the two sexes are now established in a manner better worthy of both.

The beams which enlightened our horizon through the smoke of cannon and the horrors of a disastrous war, taught fathers of families their duties; and for some years the female part of our youth have been treated more as they ought to be. Private persons however, who are obliged to depend on their own resources, can do very little to produce a complete result, unless assisted by public authority. We therefore see that almost all the establishments devoted to the education of females have become extinct soon after their foundation, and those only have continued to exist which offered fewer advantages: we mean the schools under the care of nuns.

Ideas communicated in early life, are those which most powerfully influence the lot of individuals; and if those received during the tender years are opposed to those which should guide in circumstances which are likely to occur in life, they will prove the cause of innumerable evils. The retirement of cloisters, the habits which are there acquired, render a female, who might become the delight of a husband and family, a melancholy, forbidding individual, disgusting by her manners those who may be attracted by her countenance. Accustomed to hear the world spoken against, and to see it painted worse than it is, she perceives nothing in society but immorality and disorder. She is scandalized by everything, everything appears evil, and none can obtain access to her but hypocrites, who often deceive her by professions of virtue, and render her miserable.

The most natural destiny which the Creator has assigned to women, is the care of children in their early years. They ought therefore to be chiefly instructed how to become good mothers. But how are those ever to learn their duties, who, having taken a vow never to become mothers, can have no stimulus to study them? It generally happens, that the inexperienced young girls, accustomed to regard their preceptresses as oracles, and attached to what they see them do, incline to a monastic life, which is carefully represented to them as the happiest; and resolve, with little judgment or foresight, to shut themselves forever in a cloister, to live

for the future, lost to their families, lost to society, and lost to themselves, because they become victims of despair and regret. It is easy to resolve upon anything in our tender years, but it is difficult to foresee the results to which we expose ourselves. It is easy to incline towards anything of which we have an example constantly before us; and very difficult to divest ourselves of ideas communicated by those entrusted with our instruction. To this are to be traced the many misfortunes which have befallen multitudes of persons, who, by hasty determinations, have adopted a course of life which has proved the source of constant trials, when a social disposition begins to be felt, when the first fervid attachment to a supposed call from Heaven has passed, when natural feelings come strongly into operation, and when the consideration that these evils are remediless must present itself most powerfully; for the imagination is then most active, and is able, in solitude, to exercise itself with all its force.

Let us not, for these remarks, be accused of attacking the monastic life, nor of a design to destroy it. When the religious profession has been made in mature years, and at a time when the individual by conviction, and self-knowledge, is fitted to reflect without danger on her own fate, and feels in her heart a desire to live secluded from her species, then the retirement of convents, and the privation of society may render her happy; then she may be sure that regrets will not devour her peace, and that she will be able to render to the Omnipotent, with a pure and holy heart, the homage of her devotion and liberty.

But let us return to the main point of our remarks. The government, convinced of the powerful influence which women exercise on national happiness, have passed a decree, which we published in our last number, founding in this city a college for the education of girls, in which they are to be taught their domestic duties, the principles of Christian morals, and those sciences and arts which are most useful to them. This is the first step which has been taken on this road. The nation will thank them, and will hereafter enjoy the fruits of this beneficent measure. In this city, chiefly, has been observed the want of an institution like that of which we speak; and our promising female youth grew up without any more cultivation than they could derive from the careful solicitude of their parents, in those families whose fortunes and intelligence would permit any to be given. But in those in which the want of means, or prejudice, prevented them from obtaining teachers, and attending to subjects reported to be foreign to the fair sex, things have remained the same as under our predecessors.

It has been very common to stigmatize a woman possessed of any knowledge; and a *Bachillera*, as such an one has been called, was the object of general animadversion. Having been always

satisfied with physical perfections, we have disregarded the moral part. Thus it has often happened, that a young man of talents, with a wife possessing some information, will pass some time very happily, devoted for a few years, to admiring her; and afterwards, when the effacing hand of time has destroyed the attractions by which he was captivated, he has fallen into despair, for want of some more permanent charms. In no person ought we to seek for more qualities to recommend her, than *in one with whom we are to live always*, and from whom we cannot separate ourselves without introducing disorder and corruption. It is therefore inconceivable how we have been so blind that we have not yet learned what benefits we might secure to ourselves, by affording the fair sex such an education as will render them more agreeable and more worthy of our regard. Fortunately the talents and sound judgment of our young women have, in some degree, made amends for our neglect; and the love of reading, which distinguishes all women, particularly those of this city, has to some extent filled the vacuum left by all the governors of our country. There have been some individuals who have made exertions for themselves or their friends; and we have now the happiness to perceive, that they are able to take a share in those social relations, which was formerly denied to uneducated beauty, without manners or culture. That proverb of the Spaniards, that "women are not wanted to defend logical conclusions," is now regarded as it deserves; and every sensible man, who wishes to provide for his future happiness, seeks not for a wife on whom he may merely recreate his eyes, but one with whom he can hold intellectual converse, share his trials, and live like a rational and immortal being.

We therefore applaud, as we ought, the decree to which we have referred; and hope that this first establishment, may be the predecessors of others, in different parts of the Republic.

Art. IV.—On the best Motives in Education.

By Miss C. E. Beecher.

[We have solicited from several Educators an account of their experience in regard to the evils of emulation, and the comparative influence of other motives. We are much obliged by the following reply, from one well known to our readers; and we hope that others will not withhold the facts observed by them on a question which all admit to be highly important.]

Newport, Sept. 8th, 1832.

Mr Woodbridge, — You write to request a statement of my experience on the subject of *emulation*. Your first inquiry is;

"Have you seen any bad effects from the principle of emulation, and what are they?" In reply to this I would state, that when I first commenced the duties of an instructor, I was entirely persuaded of the propriety of employing this principle in stimulating to exertion, and convinced that I never could succeed without its aid. I felt that it involved evils, but that they were *necessary* evils, such as were always to be expected with whatever is *good.*

Lest my remarks should be misunderstood, for want of a distinct notion of what I mean by *employing the principle of emulation,* I would state that I mean all methods of exciting others to exertion by rewards and punishment based on *comparative excellence.* It is giving rewards to those who are decided *to be better than their companions,* in any of those particulars for which rewards are offered. The following are some of the evils I have experienced.

In reference to those who are most affected by it, this kind of stimulus often produces *too high a degree of excitement.* There are always, in every collection of youth, some who are naturally more desirous of admiration and esteem than others — a class of minds usually denominated *ambitious.* Such need to have this tendency repressed, instead of strengthened. They need to form a habit of acting from *higher* motives.

Yet these are the very ones who inevitably are most affected by the appeals to the principle of emulation. Such minds I have sometimes observed to be so much influenced that all other motives seemed for the time being to lose their influence; and this, too, in circumstances where the ordinary class of minds would be but little affected.

Another difficulty has been experienced in the *limited extent* to which this method of exciting can reach. I have never been able to devise any method by which the indolent, unambitious, timid, and dull pupils, (those who certainly most need stimulus) could be reached. Emulation always affects those the most, who least need excitement, and leaves unaffected, those who most require it. A third evil is, that it renders those who come under the influence of this principle, *less susceptible of better influence.* I have ever found that children *form habits* in this particular. If a child is wont to have appeals made to his *affections* and to his *conscience,* he forms a habit of acting on these principles — if, on the contrary, appeals are made to ambitious motives, he forms a habit of acting under their influence.

A fourth evil has been, the envy, jealousy, suspicion, and temptation to deceit which always have been experienced, to a greater or less degree. Unwearied efforts have been made to counteract and prevent such evils. But they always *have* existed, and in an exact proportion to the degree in which this kind of stimulus has

been applied; and whatever others may be able to effect, years of experience have taught me to despair of disconnecting such evils with this kind of excitement.

At the same time, there will always be *a sense of injustice*, and a feeling of distrust and alienation called forth towards the teachers who decide the relative merits of competitors. It is impossible so to adjust rules and accounts, that there will never be occasion to suspect partiality. Teachers and pupils will never form exactly the same opinions in all given cases, at the time the decisions of rewards are made. There will always be occasions of suspicion and complaint. I never yet so succeeded, on such occasions, as that these evils were not to a greater or less extent the inevitable result, and yet the most unwearied pains have been taken to impress the pupils with correct views of their duty on such occasions, as well as to give them no just cause for such complaints. Those pupils who are too magnanimous to feel personally injured, are the ones who feel most sensitive to any apparent injustice to their friends.

The last evil I would mention is that sacrifice of the *moral* interest to the *intellectual*, which is involved in the use of this principle.

The great object of education is *to form the disposition, habits, and conscience*, and the mere acquisition of knowledge is but a minor consideration. All the *benefits* I have ever discovered in employing this principle, have been in reference to intellectual improvement. The *evils* have had a much more important and extensive range, for which nothing can be an equivalent, when moral are placed before intellectual benefits. These are the evils I have actually found from experience. How much they have resulted from the defective nature of the principle itself, and how much from the want of judgment in employing it, it is not for me to decide. I can only say that it has been a prominent object of interest, to purify it from evils and make it only good, and that after years of trial I have felt bound to banish it entirely as a dangerous and needless principle in education.

Your second inquiry is, "Have you found other motives equally efficient, and what are they?"

In reply to this I would say, that I have been able to secure motives not only *equally*, but *much more* efficient, in reference to all the objects to be gained in education.

Among these I would first mention,

Personal influence. If the esteem, the affection, and the confidence of pupils can be gained, a great amount of motive is placed at the command of a teacher. A desire to please, the fear of grieving a sincere friend, the apprehension of a loss of confidence and affection, the fear of remonstrance from one who is respected and esteemed, have very great weight in all such cases. It is only

needful to convince the pupil that a teacher is really a sincere friend, is worthy of respect and esteem, and is faithful in observing and recording deficiencies, to secure an influence which is always salutary, and never injurious. In this connection, however, I would remark, that *commendation for improvement* needs to be practised much more frequently than reproof for deficiency. Hope and encouragement is a better tonic than fear and reproof.

A second method is by habitual appeals to *the Bible* as the rule of rectitude, and to *conscience* as the judge. It is certainly a fact that persevering in such a practice will strengthen the influence of conscience, and sometimes almost *make one* when it has seemed well nigh extinct. A child who is constantly treated as if it was expected he should act with reference to the true rule of duty, and in obedience to conscience, will gradually acquire a habit of thus acting.

A third method is by cultivating a love of knowledge for its own sake (that is, for the pleasure it imparts), and also for the sake of the increased good it will enable us to do to our fellow beings. Children can be made to feel the excellence of living to do good, and can be interested in acquiring knowledge, with this object in view.

A fourth method has been by efforts to form a correct public sentiment in school, so that it shall be unpopular to do wrong. If this can be done it brings a strong influence over every member of the community, and operates beneficially, and without any re-acting evils. This is accomplished by impressing these responsibilities in this respect on the school in general, and on the most influential pupils, in particular; and in *confiding* in them, and instructing them *how* to aid their teachers, in thus benefiting their companions.

Another method is by appeals to parental influence and that of other friends. This is accomplished by transmitting frequent accounts, both of deficiencies and of improvement, to the friends of the pupils. The certainty that those they love, are watching all their course, and will certainly know both when they are negligent and when they improve, has a constant and only useful influence.

The last method I will mention, and the most certain and permanent, is by cultivating in the pupils a sense of obligation to God, of his constant inspection, and of his interest in all their concerns. This is a principle which gains strength the more it is appealed to, and is of course good and only good in its operation.

These are the principles upon which I have chiefly depended, during the last three or four years of my experience as a teacher. Every year has added to my conviction of their efficacy, and every year has increased my satisfaction that the principle of emulation which has caused me so much perplexity and trouble, has been banished with no consequent evil and much increase of good.

If my experience can be of any use in settling a question of such paramount interest, it will be a matter of real satisfaction — and, whatever you find in this statement which in your judgment is calculated to this end, is at your service.

Respectfully yours,

C. E. Beecher.

Art. V. — On the Sports of Children.

Mr Editor, — A most interesting discussion took place during the last session of the American Institute in Boston, on the propriety of a teacher's joining in the sports of his pupils. It seemed to be the prevailing opinion that much depends on the particular character and temper of the teacher; that while many teachers can secure and preserve a proper respect from their pupils; and yet join in their sports, and be on the most intimate and familiar terms with them, others of different character, would, by a similar course, lose their confidence entirely. During the discussion, an experienced instructor remarked that the sports of children, such as running, playing at ball, skating, &c, were all appropriate, and most teachers would probably find it useful to join in them. But he added that something more than this might be effected during a part, at least, of the time usually devoted to these sports. He had been in the habit of going into the fields with his pupils, to search for minerals, plants, insects, flowers, &c. Sometimes he had taken them to some brook, river, mountain, or pond. Suppose it were a stream; — his pupils were required perhaps to imagine it to be the St Lawrence; then to locate the city of Quebec, and actually proceed to build its walls in miniature, divide it into the upper and lower town, &c. This was verifying their knowledge of the *geography* of the place. But much of *history*, too, might be verified in the same way. Here, they would say, are the heights of Abraham; here Gen. Wolfe, with his army ascended — and here he fell. Other facts, historical and geographical, could easily be elicited. — He thought it highly important to employ the pupils of our common schools, generally, in some such *useful* sports, at least, a part of the time. — His remarks were highly interesting, and deserving of the serious consideration of all who have the care of children.

I could not avoid the reflection, however, that there is danger of carrying this matter too far. For one, I am fully persuaded that although few pupils actually *study* too much, yet by far the majority are confined to their rooms and their benches *too long*, by

one half. If they are to be kept in the school room six or eight hours daily — to get lessons, or pretend to get them at home besides — and if, in addition to all this, the hours usually allotted to active, vigorous exercise are to be spent in these *half* active employments of the body, I cannot help thinking that health must soon suffer.

If four hours were allowed to active athletic exercises, either agricultural, mechanical, or gymnastic, or all of them; two to study in the fields, or woods, as was proposed by the teacher above mentioned; and only *four* devoted to the study of books, I think several points would be much more effectually secured than they are at present.

1. Less of the time devoted to books would be spent in listlessness than now. Instead of being regarded as mere drudgery, application would be a pleasure, and habits of attention would be secured with little difficulty. It is not desirable, in my opinion, to make everything sport. There must be attention; there must be habits of application; these all cost effort, and effort will be more or less painful. Such is the state of the world and of human nature, that real progress is almost always *against*, seldom *with* the current.

2. In this way, time would be left for two hours' study in the fields, the play ground, or the garden; or elsewhere in the open air. This, after four hours of hard study, would be pleasant; and might, in a measure, serve as an amusement, or a healthful physical exercise. It is probable that two hours in the school room in each half day, followed by one in the field or shade, as above, would be far better than to study hard *four hours in succession;* unless the hours of study were in the morning.

3. Six hours spent in this manner, would I think be sufficient for one day, and the rest of the time might be devoted to productive physical exercises. I say *productive;* but explanation is here necessary, because the term has in my view, been often abused.

Agriculture and horticulture, as they are carried on in the open air, have some advantages over the *mechanical* employments; but I regard all of these as indispensable to every school. If the tools and implements of mechanics and husbandry are adapted to the size, age, and strength of the pupils, their labors may be directed to the construction of something useful — and even without direction, their ingenuity would suggest to them the idea of making many things, which would be serviceable. Thus their labors would be *productive*, in the narrow sense of the term. But this is not all. The labor bestowed by the cultivator of the soil with reference to an immediate crop, merely, must never be regarded as the only effort which is productive. If he remove the rocks, clear up the hedges, improve the fences, devise means to secure the soil from damage, excessive rains, &c, &c; — all this labor, as it is a work

of preparation for the future, is *productive*, in the appropriate sense of the term, although he may not, for a single year, reap much if any additional corn, grain, or fruit. This is perfectly obvious, and will doubtless be admitted. So the labor of plodding through Latin or Mathematics may at first view seem to be *lost* labor, because the fruits do not appear in clusters at once. But every one knows, at least every one acquainted with the human mind, that as a work of mental discipline — a work of preparation — much of this very labor is, prospectively, as productive as any to which the student can possibly be called.

Now it is also true that much of the physical exercise which youth demand, may appear to the superficial observer unproductive, and even useless. Perhaps he sees a boy devote half an hour to what have often been called gymnastic exercises. "What," says he, "is the use of all this? Nothing is gained by it. Let the boy be put into the field or garden, and his muscular effort might be turned to some good account. Away with your gymnastics. The best gymnastics are the plough, the hoe, the spade and the scythe."

But these are mistaken views. Whatever exercises are indispensable to complete muscular and organic development are as useful in the result, and as truly productive, as any other. Is not the perfect and harmonious development of every mental faculty indispensable? And without this is not man in a certain sense, what he has sometimes been called, — a *monster*? But are not mind and heart dependent, to a very great extent, upon *physical development*? If any portion of the physical structure be imperfectly developed, is not even the body imperfect? How much more then, that *intellect*, and those *moral sentiments*, which are so dependent upon the body, and of which the latter is the appointed vehicle!

Who then shall say that any physical exercise which tends to improve this companion or vehicle of mind and soul, is unproductive? And is it not even our duty to study to improve our bodies to the highest pitch, not only for the sake of beauty and symmetry and health and enjoyment, but for the sake of the immortal mind and heart?

It is in this view that I have been pained to hear gymnastics denounced by those who are unwilling, like the husbandman, to wait patiently for results — "the early and the latter rain;" or who are more or less ignorant on the subject, or perhaps prejudiced. It is a narrow sighted being that will not make a single manly effort to see more than" the nearest link in the great chain" of cause and effect; — that will not plant or sow unless he can reap in the next hour.

By productive exercise, then, it will be seen that I mean agriculture, and horticulture and mechanics; — and not only these, but

MUCH MORE. Whatever promotes the present, or paves the way for *future* vigor of body, and consequently of mind, is eminently productive. I do not believe that any of the ordinary employments of life, as labor is now divided, will ever completely effect this: and consequently other exercises appear to me indicated.

Here I shall be asked whether the great Educator did not know what was necessary to the complete physical, intellectual and moral development of the first pair, and whether this was not effected by manual labor merely. I answer, we do not know; nor is the argument which the objector would draw from an answer or decision, of any weight. Our condition *now* is very different from theirs *at that time*, individually and socially; so that there is no propriety in arguing from one to the other.

These thoughts on *productive labor* may seem to many like a long digression, Mr Editor, but it appears to *me* otherwise; and the course of remarks was intended with a principal reference to this subject. But there is one more point to be considered still.

One of the strongest reasons why a teacher should join in the sports of his pupils is, that he may not only turn them to their physical and intellectual advantage, but that he may *moralize* them. There is no place where a teacher may better study the characters of his pupils than in the play ground, the gymnasium, the field and the garden. Here they seldom act a borrowed part; they are more nearly what they seem to be. By his example, by his looks, by his words, — by *other* means, — should these become necessary, may he mould their characters more truly, more thoroughly, more permanently, than by any, or even, as I was going to say, by all other means put together.

It is often said that an instructor may get along in this manner for the time, but those pupils who have been accustomed to regard the teacher as an equal at school, can never in after life, entertain a proper respect for him; and will be unavoidably compelled to look upon him as a mere companion. But facts speak quite a different language; and on the contrary I am fully convinced, that *children can never entertain a* PROPER *respect for any person whom they have not first regarded as a friend.*

There are some minor reasons why teachers ought to join in the sports of their pupils. One is, it blends childhood with maturity, and probably improves the character — possibly the health of both parties; but especially of the teacher. Again it brings the teacher on the spot, and renders him an eyewitness to many little scenes for a knowledge of which, if it were *deemed indispensable*, he would otherwise often be compelled to depend on interested, prejudiced, sometimes malicious informers.

But I have no time to enlarge. If these brief hints on a sub-

ject which, in my view, ranks among the first in point of importance, should be worthy of a place in the "Annals," whose columns I understand are open to different views on instruction and education, you are at liberty, Mr Editor, to insert them, or any part of them.

Yours truly,

A Common School Teacher.

Art. VI. — Practical Lesson on Reading.

Records of an Experiment in teaching Reading and Spelling.

By J. L. Parkhurst.

[No practical lesson is of greater value than a record of experiments, with all their difficulties and failures, as well as their successful results. In this view we present our readers with an extract from the experiments which gave rise to the "Primer" of Mr Parkhurst — one of the most interesting we know, — with which we have been favored by the author.]

Mr Woodbridge. — In compliance with your request, some time since communicated, I will now endeavor to furnish a detailed account of the manner in which I was led to the method of spelling which I describe in my "First Lessons." I believe, however, it will be impossible to do this, without including, at the same time, the method of teaching a child to *read*. Between the *intellectual operations*, required in the two exercises of reading and spelling, there is probably less difference, than is commonly imagined. The faculty of reading consists in having the written characters, which are perceived by the eye, suggest to the mind those vocal sounds which they represent. In spelling, this process is exactly reversed. The vocal sounds or words, which are addressed to the ear, must suggest to the mind the written characters by which they are represented. The process, in each case, depends on what is termed the association or suggestion of ideas. The two exercises of reading and spelling ought to be taught together, as each is a help to the other: spelling conduces to accuracy in reading, and reading facilitates the difficult operation of spelling. Whatever remarks I have to offer, in explanation of my method of teaching, or in illustration of its peculiar advantages, will be best understood after giving an account of the method itself. I am far from imagining that this method is the best possible one; but I am confident it is superior to any other that has come to my knowledge.

I became convinced, many years ago, that the common method of teaching children to read and spell, was a very injudicious one. It was then customary, — and I fear it is still so in many schools, — to keep children a long time in reading and spelling *columns* of words, before they were allowed to read sentences. My oldest child was taught to read about nine years ago, without making any use of more than one or two pages in the Spelling-Book. From this he learned a part of the *abs*, and some of the easiest and most familiar of the words, composed of three letters. He was then taught both to read and spell the most simple and intelligible sentences that could be selected from Barbauld's Lessons and elsewhere. His progress was rapid, and was delightful, both to himself and his teacher. The perusal of Edgeworth had previously convinced me,

however, that his method of teaching children to read, was still better; but I supposed, that in order to teach a child to read without his having learned the names of the letters, it was necessary to have a book marked in the manner which he describes;* and the expense of getting a book printed on this plan, prevented me from making a trial of his method at that time. In the course of two or three years, however, I became convinced, that the evils arising from connecting the names of the letters with the process of reading and spelling, might be avoided in a way more simple and direct than his. How far I was indebted for this to my own reflection and how far to the Journal of Education and Worcester's Primer, I am unable to recollect.

My first experiment on this plan, was tried in 1827; and its success was as great as I could expect, in the unfavorable circumstances in which it was tried, and the short time it was continued. In 1829, I had an opportunity to repeat the experiment in circumstances which were much more favorable. I now carefully noticed its operation and marked its results from day to day. The subject of this experiment was a child, who had never learned to read at all, not even to distinguish a letter of the alphabet. I considered him as being rather slow to learn; but his subsequent improvement has taught me, that "slowness" is not exactly synonymous with "dulness." Clearness of view, certainty of knowledge, and accuracy of discrimination, are much more important to a pupil, than quickness of apprehension. As the child, above referred to, belonged to my own family, and as I considered the experiment an important one, I used every precaution to secure the process from being disturbed by any counteracting influences. He was 4 years and 5 months old the day I began to teach him. I wrote an account, from day to day, of my method of teaching and his progress in learning; and though I sometimes failed in skill, and saw reason, from time to time, to modify my method, yet perhaps the most satisfactory course will be, to let the account I am now to give, consist chiefly of extracts from the diary which I then kept.

"*Aug.* 1, 1829. I have this day begun to teach Henry to read. He has learned, today, to read *a man, a rat, a hat, a dog*, in Worcester's Primer, Lesson I. I have concealed all the words in capitals, by sticking on pieces of paper with gum-arabic. I first showed him the picture of a man, — having covered, with a loose paper, all the other pictures and corresponding words, asked him what it was; and, when he said, 'A man,' I pointed, with my penknife, to the opposite words, and said, 'That is *a man* too: that little word is *a*, and that great word is *man*. When you see those words, you must say *a man;* — that is the way to *read*.' Then immediately pointing to the picture, I asked, 'What is that?' and to the words, 'What is that?' And when he called them right, I let him take the knife, and say *a man* slowly, pointing to each word as he pronounced it. Then slipping down the covering, so as to let him see the next picture and corresponding word, I asked, 'What is that?' He said, 'Pussey.' I told him to say *a cat*. Then, pointing to the first picture, 'What is that?' 'A man.' Pointing to the opposite words, 'What is that?' 'A man.' Pointing to the second picture, 'What is that?' 'A cat.' Pointing to the opposite words, 'What is that?' 'A man.' 'No! *a cat:* this is *a cat*.' Then, on my repeating the four questions in the same order, he answered correctly. And then, on my covering the pictures, and showing him the words alone, he read them correctly. And then, on my

*See "Practical Education," Vol. I. Chap. 2.

covering the pictures and either of the words, he read the other correctly. All this was done in so short a time, (in less than ten minutes, I think,) that contrary to my original intention, I proceeded to teach him to read *a hat*, and then *a dog*, in the same method. My impression is, that he was able to tell either of the four words, when the other three and all the pictures were covered, in less than fifteen minutes from the commencement of the exercise. I was so astonished and delighted, however, that my ideas of time may not have been very accurate.

"I have heard him read the page several times since; and I have found, that unless the lesson had been soon and often repeated, what was so easily learned, would have been as easily forgotten. I believe, however, he knows all the words perfectly now, excepting that the words *hat* and *cat* being so similar, he sometimes mistakes the one for the other. I just now went over the words, several times, continually shifting the order, and he made but a single error, near the commencement of the exercise. I found him, in the early part of the day, disposed to avail himself of the local situation to assist him in reading. He would say, '*A man* is up there, and *a dog* is down here.' To cut off this resource, I provided a piece of paper, once and a half as long as the page, with a rectangular opening on one side, through which he could see each word, without being able to see any other word or picture, or to judge on what part of the page the word which he sees is situated."

On the same day, I commenced with Henry another course of instruction, entirely independent of the preceding. Having put an alphabet of the Roman small letters on pasteboard, and cut them up into tickets, I took the letters *o* and *b*, and placing them side by side, taught him to call it *ob*. The method of teaching, of which this was the first step, I shall denominate the *ticket system;* the peculiar advantages and disadvantages of which, will be shown in their proper place.

"*Aug.* 3. He yesterday learned to read *a hog, a boy, a cup, a rat, a pin:* and has to day become able to read the nine words on the opposite page. These are the words previously learned, but are arranged in a different order, without the pictures, and in a much smaller type. The smallness of the type occasioned considerable difficulty. The transition is too great. He now, however, when shown either of the nine words by the side of its corresponding picture, can readily find the same word in the columns; and he also readily reads these columns, without referring to the two preceding pages. He is delighted with learning; being if possible, more eager to learn than even William* ever was.

"Having ascertained that H. remembered *ob*, I placed an *a* under the *o*, with a little space between, and moving the *b* to the right of the *a*, said, "That is *ab*." I then moved the *b* back, for him to say *ob* again; and thus moving the *b* back and forth several times, I taught him to utter each sound the moment the letters came in contact."

"*Aug.* 4. Having ascertained that H. remembered *ob* and *ab*, I removed the letters *o* and *a*, and placed an *l* under the *b*. I then placed the *o* again by the *b*, and as soon as he had said *ob*, moved the *o* to the left of the *l*, and said, 'That is *ol*.' When he had told *ob* and *ol* alternately several times, I removed the *l*, placed the *a* again under the *o*, and let him repeat *ob* and *ab* as before. The design was, to make him perceive, that the difference of sound between *ob* and *ab* is occasioned by the difference of the letters on the *left* hand; and that the difference of sound between *ob* and *ol* is occasioned by the difference of the letters on the *right* hand.

* His elder Brother.

"H. has learned to read *cow*, *hen*, *pen*, *sun*, in Less. 2. I have covered the article *the*, prefixed to each word, to be shown tomorrow.

"I have made a beginning in teaching him to *spell* with the tickets. I first myself arranged the letters so as to form the word *man*. He could not read it, the letters on the tickets being much larger than the largest in the Primer. I directed him to step back and look at it, and see if he could read it then. When he got about half across the room, he says, 'It looks like *man*; is it?' I found it necessary to diminish the angle of vision in the same manner with two or three other words, before he could read them readily at a near view. I then put the three letters promiscuously before him, and asked him to place them so as to make the word *man*. This he very readily did. I then did the same with the words *cat*, *hat*, and *dog*, and taught him to call this *spelling*. I then put on four letters, from which he was to select three to form a word. I then increased the number to five, then to six, and then to seven; and I believe I tried him with eight and nine. — I fear I have been pushing him a little too fast today. He has committed a great many errors in *spelling*. He sometimes selects the wrong letter, where two letters are similar; sometimes puts a letter the wrong end up; and sometimes arranges them in a wrong order. Nor do I wonder; for it requires no small degree of discrimination to attend to all these three things, especially when the letters are thrown before him in all possible situations, and sometimes the other side up. He has learned to read *thirteen* words in *four* days, besides the syllables *ab*, *ob*, and *al*, and he can read most of these words in types of three different sizes. And I find, to my astonishment, that in these words and syllables are *nineteen* different letters of the alphabet."

"*Aug.* 5. I taught H. the word *the*, which was omitted yesterday. Having ascertained that he remembered *ob*, *ab*, and *ol*, I removed the two vowels, placed the *a* again by the *b*, and as soon as he had said *ab*, moved the *a* to the left of the *l*, and said, 'That is *al*.' I then let him tell *ab* and *al* alternately. To diversify the exercise still more, and save the trouble of removing some letters out of sight at every change, I now placed the vowels, at the left hand side of the slate, (I think it was a slate that I used,) and the consonants opposite to them on the right hand. I then moved the letters, one at a time, so as to make him read in the following manner: (moving the *o*) ob, ol; (moving the *a*) ab, al; (moving the *b*) ob, ab; (moving the *l*) ol, al: (then forming each lower combination before the one above it) ol, ob; al, ab; ab, ob; al, ol; ob, al; ab, ol.

"In *spelling*, I have exercised H. today in this manner: I have placed in a row, the right end up, the letters *a*, *c*, *d*, *g*, *h*, *m*, *n*, *o*, *r*, and *t*. This order is alphabetical, as far as the letters allow. I then call on him to spell *man*, *cat*, *hat*, *dog*, *hog*, and *rat*, taking the words sometimes promiscuously, and sometimes according to analogy, and returning the letters to their place as soon as he has spelled a word. I consider this exercise highly useful; but he is yet far from being perfect in it. He can spell *ob* and *ab*, *ol* and *al* without any hesitation."

"*Aug.* 6. H. having, without error, gone through the exercise on the slate with the four combinations already learned, I placed an *x* under the *l*; then, moving the *o*, let him tell *ob* and *ol*, and when the *o* came to the *x*, said to him, "*ox*." I then moved the letters so as to make him read as follows: ol, ox; ob, ox; ob, ol, ox; ab, ob, ox; ol, al, ox. — I taught him *ox* early in the morning. After breakfast, finding he remembered it, I showed him the picture of a *fox* and the corresponding word, taking pains to explain the difference between a *fox* and an *ox*. But I soon found that I had erred. He had never seen a fox; and in consequence of the similarity of sound, the two words became confounded in his mind.

When he read, instead of saying *the fox*, he would say *the ox*, and sometimes *the nox*, from my having said *an ox* in explaining the subject. I tried an hour or two, at intervals, to get him right; but became discouraged. He even, once or twice, said *nox* instead of *ox*, in reading his tickets. One resource remained. My gum-arabic and blank paper were not yet gone; and the *fox*, both word and picture, were put out of his sight, not to be seen or heard of again at present. I am mortified that my skill in the philosophy of the mind had not enabled me to foresee what a stumbling block I was placing before him. I find that *I* have become a learner today."

"*Aug.* 7. Having reviewed as before with his tickets, I introduced the combination *ax* as follows: ob, ab; ol, al; ox, '*ax*.' He then read thus: al, ax; ab, ax; ab, al, ax; ox, ax; ob, ol, ax. — 'H. has to day learned to read or find the words in columns, on the last page of Less. 2; the word *fox* of course excepted. This exercise is the same in kind that he had on the 3d inst. When I asked him to find *cow*, he first showed me the one in capitals, and then the other."

"*Aug.* 8. I placed a *g* under the *o*, taught him *og*, and exercised him as before. It has been a source of great pleasure to H., to be indulged in having the book, when his hands were clean, and looking at all the pictures, and reading to himself what he has learned. He has sat on his cricket half an hour at a time, thus silently and delightfully employed; and even then would obey with reluctance the call to lay aside his book. As he was thus sitting the other day, he says, 'Pa, I have found *pin*.' I asked him to show it to me. He brought me the book, and showed me the word at the close of Less. 6. And I found, on trial, that he could read, in the columns annexed to Lessons 6 and 7, such words as he had learned in a larger type. Yesterday, he brought me the word *hay*, in Less. 9, and asked me if it was *boy*. I told him no. Pointing at the last letter of the word, he says, 'That looks like *boy*.' I afterwards found, that he thought any word was *cow*, that had a *w* in it. Probably, spelling with the tickets is the best method of correcting such an impression. And I am almost driven to the conclusion, that I must deprive him of the pleasure of having the book to look at by himself. In addition to the erroneous impressions just mentioned, it must tend to confuse his mind and render indistinct his ideas of the words he has learned, to see so many other words, which he has *not* learned, and which bear various degrees of resemblance to those which he *has* learned. * * *

"Since writing the above, I have made H. a little book of white paper, on the leaves of which I have put *ob*, *al*, &c, *a top*, *the sun*, and in a word, the greater part of what he has learned. He was much grieved, this forenoon, at not being permitted to have the Primer to look at; but since he has had his new book, of domestic manufacture, he has appeared to forget the other, and to be as happy as ever."

"*Aug.* 9. The combination *ag* was introduced to H. in the same manner in which the combination *ax* had previously been.

"*Aug.* 10. I placed the letter *p* between *b* and *l*: and as soon as H. had told *o*, I moved the *o* to the left of the *p*, and said, '*op*.' I placed the *p* next to the *b* for the purpose of comparison, the two letters being similar, both in sound and in form. H. then read thus: ob, op; ol, op; ol, ob, op; ol, op, ob; ox, ob, op; og, op, ob; &c.

"*Aug.* 11. H. has learned *ap*. He has also begun to learn the capital letters. Placing the proper tickets before him, I say to him, 'Spell *ox* with small letters.' Then, 'Spell *ox* with a capital.' He can spell *sun*, *cat*, *boy*, and *pin* in the same manner.

"*Aug.* 12. H. has learned to read *on* with his tickets, (*n* being placed under *g*,) and to spell *the* with a capital. I this morning put the sentences, 'He can run' and 'I can hop' into his *album*, and he has learned them both perfectly. Thus he has, in one day, learned *six* new words.

"*Aug.* 13. H. has learned to read *an* with his tickets; and has learned to read, in Less. 6, the sentences, 'A man has two feet — He has two hands — The cat has four legs.' This makes *seven* new words for today. In teaching him to read sentences, my method is as follows: I first say the sentence to him, in such a manner as to be sure that he perceives its meaning. I then say to him, for instance, 'Now you may read *He can run*, in the book. That is *He can run;*' — moving my pointer along the line, all other words on the page being covered. 'This word is *He;* that is *can;* and that is *run;*' — pointing at each word. 'Now you can read it. Point at each word as I did.' When he has done so, I say, 'Now read it fast.' The design of teaching to read fast, is, to make the sentence sound naturally, like conversation, the auxiliary *can* being passed over slightly. Then, pointing at each word in order, 'What is that?' — 'He.' — 'What is that?' — 'Can.' — 'What is that?' — 'Run.' Then, giving him the pointer, 'Show me *He*....Show me *can*....Show me *run*.' Then I do the same, taking the words backwards. And after teaching him the next line in a similar manner, I proceed to ask the words in the two lines promiscuously. I also cover everything on the page except a single word, and tell him to read it.

"Today, after teaching him the first line, I slipped down the covering so as to show him the next line. Then, pointing at *has* in the first line, I said, 'What is that?' — '*Has*.' — 'Now show me *has* in this line,' — moving my pointer along the second line. Then, having done the same with the word *two*, I told him the next word *hand*, showing him my hands as I announced the word. — It is important that the sentences should be read to the child perfectly in the tone and manner of conversation, and that he should practise reading in that manner, except when directed to read each word separately. — I introduced the first line to him in this manner: 'How many feet has a man?' — 'Two feet.' — 'Yes, so it says in the book. Hear me read this line: *A man has two feet;*' — reading moderately, and moving my pointer along the line. — I find that he can read most of the words which he has learned, wherever he sees them in the book; but I have not let him have the book to himself since his album was made."

[Note. We shall insert the remainder of Mr Parkhurst's account of his interesting and important experiment as early as possible. In the meantime we cannot but express the hope which we have so often repeated, that instructors and educators generally, who have made experiments of similar importance, will avail themselves of the facilities which this journal affords of presenting them to the public. — Ed.]

INTELLIGENCE.

Reports of School Visitors.

Every year increases the number of published reports on the condition of common schools, even in Connecticut, where so much apathy has been well known to prevail: and although their actual condition is by no means such as would be desirable, yet the very fact of the *appearance* of the reports is gratifying; and may be regarded both as a cause and an an effect of an increasing attention to these important institutions. We have before us the Reports, for 1832, of the Committees of the School Societies of *Norwalk*, and *Abington*, Conn.

In Norwalk, considerable effort during the past year has been made to see that the schools were faithfully visited and scrupulously examined. The Committee passed a resolve at the commencement of the year, to visit each of the nine districts of which the Society is composed in due season, and to spend at least *half a day in a school at each visit.* This measure, of itself, augurs improvement. They also resolved to keep a journal of their proceedings (an excellent measure), and note therein the state of the schools — character and qualifications of teachers — branches of study — number and kinds of books — location and arrangement of houses — number of schools, &c. These duties appear to have been faithfully and perseveringly performed; and their report, as published in the Norwalk Gazette, is full of interest. We have room only for a few of the more important items.

The visitors found the School houses, with the exception of two or three (in nine,) commodious and comfortable, and the deficiency of books not as great as was anticipated. Some of the teachers were well qualified, and a majority were above mediocrity; yet there were those *who were not*, and whose schools exhibited a corresponding want of discipline and improvement. It is indeed stated that in general there was a want of experience and tact in teachers — of a proper degree of interest in parents — of even a tolerable uniformity of books — and of punctuality and regularity in the attendance of the scholars.

The whole number of children in the *society* between the ages of 4 and 16, was 1055. Of these, only 588 (a little more than half) were entered on the school lists, but the general average attendance was only 386! But to account, in part, for this surprising disparity between the whole number in the district and the average attendance, the report mentions two private schools containing together 65 children; that the season was unusually severe; and that Hooping Cough, Influenza, &c, prevailed. Still these could not wholly account for the difference. Other and deeper causes must be assigned for an effect which is visible nearly all over New England.

Of the 588 pupils on the lists, and who of course attend school more or less, and need books when they do attend, all or nearly all would need spelling books, and we should think 500 of them would need some kind of a reading book. Yet there were found only 99 Spelling Books, or one to six pupils; and only 172 Spelling Books, Dictionaries, and Definers; or less than one book to three pupils. Of Reading books there were only 331 including about 100 Histories, &c, which *probably* were not used as readers.

The whole number of pupils in Writing was 212; the number of Arithmetics 146; Geographies 93; Grammars only 24! And yet in several of these branches about twenty different authors were used!

The wages of the teachers varied from $14 to $27½ a month. The report has much to say of the importance of procuring a *workman*, as a teacher, let the expense be what it may.

It appears that two or three of their school houses are deplorably deficient. One is so small that the scholars, 75 on the list, "can hardly be *stowed*, and leave room for the stove and teacher's desk." Another appears to be situated in the sand, almost in the midst of a public road. In all but one the seats for the small children were without backs. Of this the report justly complains, and it is observed that if parents would but look in upon them, and see them sitting for *three hours at a time*, doubled up and listless, or moving their feet about on the floor from fatigue and uneasiness, and thus unavoidably exposing themselves to the rebuke and raps of the teacher, the common feelings of humanity would impel them to a general turn out for their relief. We were struck with the correspondence of the facts, on this point, mentioned in the Report, with those which are set forth in Mr Alcott's Essay on School Houses, published under the direction of the American Institute.

The Report of the School Visitors of ABINGTON is less complete than the former, though quite interesting. The teachers are represented as faithful and the state of the "schools in the society gradually improving;" but the visitors complain that *reading* is much neglected, and that the pupils are very irregular in attendance. "Of the whole number of scholars instructed in this Society, *one half* attended school *half of the time*, and the remainder in less proportion of time to one tenth!!! *Six* scholars in one district attended every day." Fourteen, between the ages of 4 and 16 attend no school at all. Of those who attend, about half write, one fourth study Geography and Grammar, and one third Arithmetic. The schools are generally kept up from *six* to *seven and a half* months in the year. The wages of the male teachers averaged about $13 a month. One instructress received $4 a month.

TEACHERS' AND SCHOOL VISITORS' CONVENTION.

A public meeting of Teachers and Visitors of Common Schools was held at Brooklyn, Conn. on the 1st. of Nov. last. We notice this with the more pleasure from the fact that the *Visitors met with* the Teachers. This, though not very common, is as it should be. We are happy to know that the cause of Primary Education has so many warm advocates in Windham County.

As the result of the above meeting an appeal to the "Parents and Guardians of Children in the County of Windham," has been published in the Christian Monitor and Adviser. It embraces many important facts and valuable suggestions, which should be read and pondered by every "parent and guardian of children" in the community. We should be glad to make several extracts from the "Address" did our space permit; but we have only room for these passing remarks.

The same evils which are noticed in the "reports" which are made the basis of the preceding article, appear to be common in Windham County. Incompetent teachers, parental neglect and parsimony, defective school-houses, and want of proper ventilation, are some of them. It also appears that in one School Society during the last winter "only *half the pupils* attended school about half the time, and the rest in less proportions, even to one tenth!" In a note to the Address, the Committee who framed it state that they "know of but two School Societies in the County which require of their Board of Visitors an annual Report." This is striking, but to us not surprising, for ten years ago we do not believe there were two School Societies in that state who required it. On this subject, facts like the foregoing, speak for themselves.

Governesses.

There is a lady in Paris, whose only employment consists in examining the registers of young women, desirous of being admitted into the faculty of teachers, and in afterwards questioning them as to the extent of their attainments. She is thence enabled to certify to the individuals, composing the jury of public instruction, that Miss A. or Miss Z. is qualified to pass her examination; and, in this event, the latter makes her appearance before one or two of this jury, notes the questions put to her, and replies to them to the best of her ability.

Three species of diplomas are granted; the first is, that of *mistresses of studies*, and *mistresses of schools:* the qualification required is, the having made extracts from the Scriptures, Grammar, and Arithmetic, and given pertinent answers on these three subjects. Armed with this diploma, a female may venture upon opening a class for children, or an elementary school. The second degree is somewhat more respectable; the additional qualification required is the History of France and Geography; and the female possessed of a corresponding diploma, may inscribe the word "boarding school" *(pension)* on the door of her establishment, and undertake to board and instruct young persons. But the *ne plus ultra* of diplomas is that of governesses *(institutrices)*. It does not fall to the lot of all who seek the distinction; for she who would obtain it, must possess sound information, and have gone through a course of long and extensive study: it is not mere phrases, but real attainments which she must have at command; and I know many a young man, who has turned the corner of his rhetoric, and pored over philosophy, that would find no little difficulty in answering the questions which the aspirants after a governess' diploma is expected to solve. She must be familiar with the history of ancient times, and the middle ages, as well as every modern annal; is expected to be versed in French and foreign literature; to be as conversant with cosmography as M. Azais; and to dispute with Condillac, were he still in the land of the living, on logic and rhetoric.

Whenever a lady, provided with this rank of diploma, offers to teach your daughters, you need not fear entrusting them to her care; she will inevitably be found well informed. Mademoiselle A. F., one of my pupils, obtained a governess' degree at the early age of sixteen; she is the youngest hitherto entered on the register. The lady in possession of such a passport as this has nothing more to do than to turn it to account. — *Mademoiselle V. Collin, in the fifth volume of the Livre des cent et Un.*

St Peter's School.

There is no seminary in St Petersburg which occupies a higher rank, both as to extent and importance, than this school; particularly since the improvements which have been introduced into it of late years. It is the first in order of all the Russian gymnasia, and, including the female school, which is attached to it, has never less, on an average, than 600 pupils, whose education is entrusted to 24 teachers, and comprises every branch of science, language, and the fine arts. It is especially designed for the advantage of the 60,000 Germans, who are settled in St Petersburg; and the masters are, therefore, in general of German extraction. The superintendence of this institution is vested in the German Protestant Consistory, conjointly with the Presbytery of St Peter's and certain members of the civic magistracy. The pupils are divided into six classes, and each class is subdivided into two sections. A public examination, with which are combined declamations and rhetorical exercises, takes place once a year. — *London Quarterly Journal of Education.*

however, that his method of teaching children to read, was still better; but I supposed, that in order to teach a child to read without his having learned the names of the letters, it was necessary to have a book marked in the manner which he describes;* and the expense of getting a book printed on this plan, prevented me from making a trial of his method at that time. In the course of two or three years, however, I became convinced, that the evils arising from connecting the names of the letters with the process of reading and spelling, might be avoided in a way more simple and direct than his. How far I was indebted for this to my own reflection and how far to the Journal of Education and Worcester's Primer, I am unable to recollect.

My first experiment on this plan, was tried in 1827; and its success was as great as I could expect, in the unfavorable circumstances in which it was tried, and the short time it was continued. In 1829, I had an opportunity to repeat the experiment in circumstances which were much more favorable. I now carefully noticed its operation and marked its results from day to day. The subject of this experiment was a child, who had never learned to read at all, not even to distinguish a letter of the alphabet. I considered him as being rather slow to learn; but his subsequent improvement has taught me, that "slowness" is not exactly synonymous with "dulness." Clearness of view, certainty of knowledge, and accuracy of discrimination, are much more important to a pupil, than quickness of apprehension. As the child, above referred to, belonged to my own family, and as I considered the experiment an important one, I used every precaution to secure the process from being disturbed by any counteracting influences. He was 4 years and 5 months old the day I began to teach him. I wrote an account, from day to day, of my method of teaching and his progress in learning; and though I sometimes failed in skill, and saw reason, from time to time, to modify my method, yet perhaps the most satisfactory course will be, to let the account I am now to give, consist chiefly of extracts from the diary which I then kept.

"*Aug.* 1, 1829. I have this day begun to teach Henry to read. He has learned, today, to read *a man*, *a rat*, *a hat*, *a dog*, in Worcester's Primer, Lesson I. I have concealed all the words in capitals, by sticking on pieces of paper with gum-arabic. I first showed him the picture of a man,—having covered, with a loose paper, all the other pictures and corresponding words, asked him what it was; and, when he said, 'A man,' I pointed, with my penknife, to the opposite words, and said, 'That is *a man* too: that little word is *a*, and that great word is *man*. When you see those words, you must say *a man*;—that is the way to *read*.' Then immediately pointing to the picture, I asked, 'What is that?' and to the words, 'What is that?' And when he called them right, I let him take the knife, and say *a man* slowly, pointing to each word as he pronounced it. Then slipping down the covering, so as to let him see the next picture and corresponding word, I asked, 'What is that?' He said, 'Pussey.' I told him to say *a cat*. Then, pointing to the first picture, 'What is that?' 'A man.' Pointing to the opposite words, 'What is that?' 'A man.' Pointing to the second picture, 'What is that?' 'A cat.' Pointing to the opposite words, 'What is that?' 'A man.' 'No! *a cat*: this is *a cat*.' Then, on my repeating the four questions in the same order, he answered correctly. And then, on my covering the pictures, and showing him the words alone, he read them correctly. And then, on my

*See "Practical Education," Vol. I. Chap. 2.

The Ladder to Learning: a Collection of Fables arranged progressively in words of One, Two and Three Syllables; With Original Morals. Edited and Improved by Mrs Trimmer. First American, from the thirteenth London Edition with seventynine wood engravings. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 16mo. pp. 309.

Instruction by means of fables will probably always, in a greater or less degree, be resorted to. There is a great deal of simplicity in the work before us; the *morals*, whether "original" in every instance or not, are judicious, and there are other obvious excellences; but some of the engravings are bad, both in design and execution, which we think always a serious evil, and above all in books intended for children.

Bible Illustrations, or a Description of Manners and Customs peculiar to the East, especially explanatory of the Holy Scriptures. By B. H. Draper. Boston: Carter Hendee & Co. 1832. 16mo. pp. 215.

This is the title of an English work, with some American improvements, and is emphatically what the title represents it to be. We are glad to see even the *long* catalogue of new publications lengthened by the addition of works of this stamp. Entertainment, instruction, and moral and religious improvement may reasonably be anticipated. We should be glad to sit down immediately to a second perusal of the book ourselves. The execution of the work is in keeping with the usual style of its enterprising publishers. We could wish, indeed, the engravings were better, but there are two or three whose novel character will induce many readers to forget other deficiencies.

A View of the Elementary Principles of Education, founded on the study of the Nature of Man. By G. Spurzheim, M. D., of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians of London. First American Edition; revised and improved by the Author, from the third London Edition. Boston: Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1832. 12mo. pp. 318.

This interesting book is the bequest of a stranger, who excited universal interest on his first visit to our continent, and was only allowed to remain long enough among us, to show the extent and depth of his observations on human nature. Whatever views are entertained of Craniology, we have found but one opinion among those who have heard his lectures, concerning the accuracy and common sense exhibited in his views on the faculties and propensities of the human mind. The present work is founded upon these views. It abounds with practical remarks, which are of great value, combined with a theory which certainly gives them additional interest and force; and while we are not prepared to adopt his entire system, or to express our views in detail, (as we hope to do in a future number,) we have no hesitation in recommending the work as richly deserving the attention of the parent and the teacher.

Remarks on the Influence of Mental Cultivation on Health. By Amariah Brigham. Hartford: J. F. Huntington, 1832. 12mo. pp. 110.

We have been highly gratified by a hasty perusal of this work, on a most important topic in education. Although some of its views, in our opinion are pressed too far, we could wish to see it in the hands of all who are destroying themselves or their children by endeavoring to produce one of those mental *prodigies*, which are as really *monsters*, as the beings born with a double head. We promise ourselves the pleasure of making our readers better acquainted with the work hereafter, although we neither hope nor desire to supersede that necessity of perusing it for himself, which we think every parent who is not familiar with the subject will feel.

"H. has learned to read *cow, hen, pen, sun,* in Less. 2. I have covered the article *the,* prefixed to each word, to be shown tomorrow.

"I have made a beginning in teaching him to *spell* with the tickets. I first myself arranged the letters so as to form the word *man.* He could not read it, the letters on the tickets being much larger than the largest in the Primer. I directed him to step back and look at it, and see if he could read it then. When he got about half across the room, he says, 'It looks like *man;* is it?' I found it necessary to diminish the angle of vision in the same manner with two or three other words, before he could read them readily at a near view. I then put the three letters promiscuously before him, and asked him to place them so as to make the word *man.* This he very readily did. I then did the same with the words *cat, hat,* and *dog,* and taught him to call this *spelling.* I then put on four letters, from which he was to select three to form a word. I then increased the number to five, then to six; and then to seven; and I believe I tried him with eight and nine. — I fear I have been pushing him a little too fast today. He has committed a great many errors in *spelling.* He sometimes selects the wrong letter, where two letters are similar; sometimes puts a letter the wrong end up; and sometimes arranges them in a wrong order. Nor do I wonder; for it requires no small degree of discrimination to attend to all these three things, especially when the letters are thrown before him in all possible situations, and sometimes the other side up. He has learned to read *thirteen* words in *four* days, besides the syllables *ab, ob,* and *ol,* and he can read most of these words in types of three different sizes. And I find, to my astonishment, that in these words and syllables are *nineteen* different letters of the alphabet."

"*Aug.* 5. I taught H. the word *the,* which was omitted yesterday. Having ascertained that he remembered *ob, ab,* and *ol,* I removed the two vowels, placed the *a* again by the *b,* and as soon as he had said *ab,* moved the *a* to the left of the *l,* and said, 'That is *al.*' I then let him tell *ab* and *al* alternately. To diversify the exercise still more, and save the trouble of removing some letters out of sight at every change, I now placed the vowels, at the left hand side of the slate, (I think it was a slate that I used,) and the consonants opposite to them on the right hand. I then moved the letters, one at a time, so as to make him read in the following manner: (moving the *o*) ob, ol; (moving the *a*) ab, al; (moving the *b*) ob, ab; (moving the *l*) ol, al: (then forming each lower combination before the one above it) ol, ob; al, ab; ab, ob; al, ol; ob, al; ab, ol.

"In *spelling,* I have exercised H. today in this manner: I have placed in a row, the right end up, the letters *a, c, d, g, h, m, n, o, r,* and *t.* This order is alphabetical, as far as the letters allow. I then call on him to spell *man, cat, hat, dog, hog,* and *rat,* taking the words sometimes promiscuously, and sometimes according to analogy, and returning the letters to their place as soon as he has spelled a word. I consider this exercise highly useful; but he is yet far from being perfect in it. He can spell *ob* and *ab, ol* and *al* without any hesitation."

"*Aug.* 6. H. having, without error, gone through the exercise on the slate with the four combinations already learned, I placed an *x* under the *l*; then, moving the *o,* let him tell *ob* and *ol,* and when the *o* came to the *x,* said to him, "*ox.*" I then moved the letters so as to make him read as follows: ol, ox; ob, ox; ob, ol, ox; ab, ob, ox; ol, al, ox. — I taught him *ox* early in the morning. After breakfast, finding he remembered it, I showed him the picture of a *fox* and the corresponding word, taking pains to explain the difference between a *fox* and an *ox.* But I soon found that I had erred. He had never seen a fox; and in consequence of the similarity of sound, the two words became confounded in his mind.

Scriptural and Moral Lessons for Infants; with Observations on the manner of using them. By T. Bilby and R. B. Ridgway, Masters of the Chelsea and Hart Street Infant Schools. Revised for Schools and Families in the United States, by the American Editor. Boston, Munroe & Francis; and New York, C. S. Francis, 1832. 12mo. pp. 116.

Tales of the Bible, by a Grandmother. Part II. Boston. Perkins & Marvin; and Philadelphia, French & Perkins, 1832. pp. 36.

Knowledge for the People, or the plain Why and Because. Part 12. Boston. Lilly, Wait & Co. 1832.

Bible Illustrations; or a Description of Manners and Customs peculiar to the East, especially Explanations of the Holy Scriptures. By Rev. B. H. Draper, Author of Scripture Stories from the Old and New Testament. Boston. 1832. Carter, Hendee & Co.

The Child's Own Book of Tales and Anecdotes about Dogs, with Engravings. Boston, 1832. Carter, Hendee & Co.

Sequel to the Spelling Book. By S. T. Worcester. Boston. Lilly, Wait & Co. 12mo. pp. 128.

Library of Entertaining Knowledge, Vol. XVI. Parts 1 & 2. Containing Criminal Trials. Boston. Lilly, Wait & Co. 1832.

Juvenile Poems for Young Children. By Wm. Wordsworth. Boston. Lilly, Wait, Colman and Holden. 1833. 16mo. pp. 94.

Stories about Boston and its neighborhood. By Robin Carver. Boston. Leonard C. Bowles, & Lilly, Wait & Co. 1833. 16mo. pp. 184.

The American Almanac and Repository of Useful Knowledge for the year 1833. Boston. Gray & Bowen, and Carter, Hendee & Co. 12mo. pp. 312.

The Ladder to Learning; a collection of Fables, arranged progressively in words of one, two or three syllables; with Original Morals. Edited and Improved by Mrs Trimmer. First American from the Thirteenth London Edition. With seventyfive wood engravings. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 16mo. pp. 309.

Conversations on the Evidences of Christianity, in which the leading arguments of the best Authors are arranged, developed, and connected with each other. Adapted to the use of Schools and Families. By Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832. 12mo. pp. 274.

Book Keeping, suited to the business of Traders, Farmers and Mechanics, mostly by single entry; and designed for schools. To which is added a key to certain parts of the Mercantile Arithmetic. By Michael Walsh, A. M. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832. 8vo. pp. 78.

The Child's First Book of Spelling and Reading, arranged on a new and improved plan; with sixtyseven engravings. By H. L. Barnum. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 16mo. pp. 32.

Also by the same Author and Publishers:

The Child's Second Book of Spelling and Reading, connected with the Elements of Writing, with fiftyfive engravings. Boston, 1832. 16mo. pp. 32.

The Child's Third Book of Spelling and Reading, connected with Writing, Numeration, Mensuration, and the use of Maps. Being an easy introduction to Geography and Arithmetic. With Maps and other engravings. Boston, 1832. 12mo. pp. 72.

The First Book of Geography, connected with Spelling, Reading and Writing; illustrated by thirty Maps and other engravings, for Schools and Families. Boston, 1832. 12mo. pp. 60.

Just published by the American Sunday School Union,

Natural History for Infant Schools. No. X. The Hive Bee. pp. 16. No. XI. Insects continued. pp. 16. 5 colored cuts.

Anecdotes of Missionary Worthies in the Moravian Church. Related by a Father to his Children. 18mo. pp. 116. 6 plates.

Mary Carter, pp. 33.

Robert, Margaret and Maria. pp. 34.

School Children at noon, in verse. pp. 16. 8 cuts.

"*Aug.* 12. H. has learned to read *on* with his tickets, (*n* being placed under *g*,) and to spell *the* with a capital. I this morning put the sentences, 'He can run' and 'I can hop' into his *album*, and he has learned them both perfectly. Thus he has, in one day, learned *six* new words.

"*Aug.* 13. H. has learned to read *an* with his tickets; and has learned to read, in Less. 6, the sentences, 'A man has two feet — He has two hands — The cat has four legs.' This makes *seven* new words for today. In teaching him to read sentences, my method is as follows: I first say the sentence to him, in such a manner as to be sure that he perceives its meaning. I then say to him, for instance, 'Now you may read *He can run*, in the book. That is *He can run*;' — moving my pointer along the line, all other words on the page being covered. 'This word is *He*; that is *can*; and that is *run*;' — pointing at each word. 'Now you can read it. Point at each word as I did.' When he has done so, I say, 'Now read it fast.' The design of teaching to read fast, is, to make the sentence sound naturally, like conversation, the auxiliary *can* being passed over slightly. Then, pointing at each word in order, 'What is that?' — 'He.' — 'What is that?' — 'Can.' — 'What is that?' — 'Run.' Then, giving him the pointer, 'Show me *He*....Show me *can*....Show me *run*.' Then I do the same, taking the words backwards. And after teaching him the next line in a similar manner, I proceed to ask the words in the two lines promiscuously. I also cover everything on the page except a single word, and tell him to read it.

"Today, after teaching him the first line, I slipped down the covering so as to show him the next line. Then, pointing at *has* in the first line, I said, 'What is that?' — '*Has*.' — 'Now show me *has* in this line,' — moving my pointer along the second line. Then, having done the same with the word *two*, I told him the next word *hand*, showing him my hands as I announced the word. — It is important that the sentences should be read to the child perfectly in the tone and manner of conversation, and that he should practise reading in that manner, except when directed to read each word separately. — I introduced the first line to him in this manner: 'How many feet has a man?' — 'Two feet.' — 'Yes, so it says in the book. Hear me read this line: *A man has two feet*;' — reading moderately, and moving my pointer along the line. — I find that he can read most of the words which he has learned, wherever he sees them in the book; but I have not let him have the book to himself since his album was made."

[Note. We shall insert the remainder of Mr Parkhurst's account of his interesting and important experiment as early as possible. In the meantime we cannot but express the hope which we have so often repeated, that instructors and educators generally, who have made experiments of similar importance, will avail themselves of the facilities which this journal affords of presenting them to the public. — Ed.]

built or can rest. Persons, then, who have the opportunity, should learn the living language they wish to possess, as it is learnt by those to whom it is native. They should reside where it is constantly spoken, and use it, as it is used around them. It should be the minister to their hourly wants, and the medium of their constant intercourse. Even the books they read should be chosen with reference to the habits and peculiarities of the spoken idiom that produced them, and in studying the language itself, it should be pursued less as a foreign language than as one which they may claim among their birthrights. This is the natural method, and is, no doubt, the most effectual and the easiest.

Only a few persons however are able or willing to avail themselves of it. If we wish to instruct our children in a foreign language, we find it inconvenient and unwise to send them among strangers, in a strange land to learn it: and, if we undertake to teach them at home, we shall hardly be disposed, like Montaigne's father, to surround them only with those who speak no other than the one we wish them to acquire. In the vast majority of cases, therefore, we must resort to means somewhat more artificial and indirect; and, while still endeavoring to teach it as a living and a spoken language, use the best method within our power at home.

What, then, is this best method? For this is precisely the question you have done me the honor to propose to me; and as it is entirely plain and practical in its nature and objects, I shall not venture, in the reply I may endeavor to make to it, to go in any respect beyond the limits of my personal experience and observation, or wish to say anything which is not as perfectly plain and practical as the question itself.

Before, however, we enter on the topics it involves, it may be necessary to premise, that there is no *one* mode of teaching languages, applicable to all classes and characters, or to persons of all the different ages and different degrees of preparation, who present themselves to be taught. Instruction in this branch of education, even more than in most others, cannot, without great violence and injustice to a large proportion of the pupils, be managed upon a Procrustes system of stretching all who have not the proper intellectual size, till they are brought to it, and of cutting down all who are grown beyond its proportions, till they are sufficiently reduced to fit its demands. On the contrary, it is, perhaps, the most important part of the duties of a teacher in the living languages, and the highest exercise of his skill, to select from the different systems and modes in use, what may be most appropriate to the whole class of pupils submitted to his care, and then to endeavor again to accommodate and arrange what he has thus selected for the whole of his pupils to the individual capacities, dispositions and wants of

The wages of the teachers varied from $14 to $27½ a month. The report has much to say of the importance of procuring a *workman*, as a teacher, let the expense be what it may.

It appears that two or three of their school houses are deplorably deficient. One is so small that the scholars, 75 on the list, "can hardly be *stowed*, and leave room for the stove and teacher's desk." Another appears to be situated in the sand, almost in the midst of a public road. In all but one the seats for the small children were without backs. Of this the report justly complains, and it is observed that if parents would but look in upon them, and see them sitting for *three hours at a time*, doubled up and listless, or moving their feet about on the floor from fatigue and uneasiness, and thus unavoidably exposing themselves to the rebuke and raps of the teacher, the common feelings of humanity would impel them to a general turn out for their relief. We were struck with the correspondence of the facts, on this point, mentioned in the Report, with those which are set forth in Mr Alcott's Essay on School Houses, published under the direction of the American Institute.

The Report of the School Visitors of ABINGTON is less complete than the former, though quite interesting. The teachers are represented as faithful and the state of the "schools in the society gradually improving;" but the visitors complain that *reading* is much neglected, and that the pupils are very irregular in attendance. "Of the whole number of scholars instructed in this Society, *one half* attended school *half of the time*, and the remainder in less proportion of time to one tenth!!! *Six* scholars in one district attended every day." Fourteen, between the ages of 4 and 16 attend no school at all. Of those who attend, about half write, one fourth study Geography and Grammar, and one third Arithmetic. The schools are generally kept up from *six* to *seven and a half* months in the year. The wages of the male teachers averaged about $13 a month. One instructress received $4 a month.

TEACHERS' AND SCHOOL VISITORS' CONVENTION.

A public meeting of Teachers and Visitors of Common Schools was held at Brooklyn, Conn. on the 1st. of Nov. last. We notice this with the more pleasure from the fact that the *Visitors met with* the Teachers. This, though not very common, is as it should be. We are happy to know that the cause of Primary Education has so many warm advocates in Windham County.

As the result of the above meeting an appeal to the "Parents and Guardians of Children in the County of Windham," has been published in the Christian Monitor and Adviser. It embraces many important facts and valuable suggestions, which should be read and pondered by every "parent and guardian of children" in the community. We should be glad to make several extracts from the "Address" did our space permit; but we have only room for these passing remarks.

The same evils which are noticed in the "reports" which are made the basis of the preceding article, appear to be common in Windham County. Incompetent teachers, parental neglect and parsimony, defective schoolhouses, and want of proper ventilation, are some of them. It also appears that in one School Society during the last winter "only *half the pupils* attended school about half the time, and the rest in less proportions, even to one tenth!" In a note to the Address, the Committee who framed it state that they "know of but two School Societies in the County which require of their Board of Visitors an annual Report." This is striking, but to us not surprising, for ten years ago we do not believe there were two School Societies in that state who required it. On this subject, facts like the foregoing, speak for themselves.

what the experience and observation of many among ourselves has confirmed, that much time is now lost in childhood or misapplied in instructions unsuited to its tender years, which might be successfully and pleasantly given to the acquisition of at least one living language.

The method of teaching however, should be no less skilfully and tenderly adapted to the age and circumstances of the pupil, than the pursuit itself. Of the Grammar, or the Dictionary, or any of the customary apparatus of formal instruction and recitation, there should be no thought. A child of six or seven years old can no more be made to comprehend the definition of an article or a verb, than he can be made to comprehend what is an abstract idea or a logarithm; but, if you will read several times over, to the same child, word by word, a clear translation of a very simple fable or story from the French or the Italian, or any other living language, making him follow you aloud step by step, and bringing the whole, by the simplicity of your explanations, fully down to the level of his comprehension, he will be able the next day so to translate it to you, in return, that he can not only give you the entire fable or story in its connexion, but the foreign word for every English one it contains, and the English for every foreign one, taken at random. We have a few books, and only a few, prepared to teach quite young children on this system. Bolmar's Edition of the Fables commonly called Perrin's, is one of them, well suited to its purpose, and none but those who have made the experiment can fully understand how easy it is for childhood to read and learn this book, and how much can thus be accomplished towards the final acquisition of the French language. Indeed, when a hundred pages have been thoroughly learnt in this way, not a few of the difficulties of any modern language have been overcome; and yet this certainly can be accomplished and has been accomplished with children of six or seven years old, who yet did not feel, in any part of the process, that a task had been imposed on them.

In selecting books, however, from which to teach according to this method, one rule must be carefully followed. Take only such as, in their subjects and ideas, their manner and their tone, are *below* the age of the child to be taught; so that if the child you wish to instruct be seven years old and the language you have chosen be French, the books to be used should be such as are given to French children of four or five years old for their amusement. The reason is, that the child should have no difficulty to encounter but the mere difficulty of the language itself, and this will be found quite sufficient to make up for the difference in years, while, at the same time, the interest that might otherwise be wanting, is sustained by the instinctive curiosity to learn the meaning of new

NOTICES.

The Eclectic Reader, designed for Schools and Academies, by B. B. Edwards, Editor of the American Quarterly Register, Boston. Perkins & Marvin. Philadelphia: French & Perkins. 1832. 12mo. pp. 324.

We were somewhat startled at finding a new "reader" upon our table, and felt much disposed to avail ourselves of the occasion presented by a good work of a judicious author, to remonstrate against the inundation that seems to be pouring upon us in the form of school books. Still, we cannot forget the "daily thousand" added to the population of our nurseries and schools. We have before expressed our conviction that reading books ought to be varied more than any other school books; — and when we recollect that only a few years since, an individual in one of our best schools was confined for *seven years* to "Murray's English Reader," the superfluity seems a less evil than the famine. Science is positive; its great principles fixed, and their illustrations almost uniform; and therefore a single accurate treatise is better than many. — Taste, on the other hand, has a boundless field for selection, and can never exhaust the store of excellent passages which ought to be known to youth, but which they will not be likely to see in the original; or weary the taste for variety which it is deemed proper to gratify in the libraries of adults.

The author's design in this work was to furnish such a selection as would tend directly to promote the moral and religious improvement of our youth, and in this way contribute directly to "the moral renovation of the world," while it should be adapted to cultivate the taste and enlarge the mind. We think he has succeeded. The selections comprise a great variety of subject and style — and a large proportion of recent and novel matter. They are generally made with judgment and taste, and with a catholic christian spirit which distinctly presents some of the prevalent opinions of the mass of christians, but admits nothing which we think could offend any. We cannot but hope that it will form a useful volume in the school library, and serve to extend the travels of pupils in the field of literature, without distracting their minds. Let teachers be cautious, however, in their selection and change of books; and the demand will always regulate the supply with an effect or a manner which cannot be hoped from any other course.

Letters to a Student in the first stage of a Liberal Education. Boston: Perkins & Marvin. Philadelphia: French & Perkins, 1832. 18mo. pp. 174.

We have met with no recent work, which comprises, in so small a space, so many valuable maxims for the student, whether young or old. The author is Pres. Lord of Dartmouth College. We rejoice to see such sound views of education, especially of physical and moral education, brought forward with the sanction of so respectable an institution; and we are not a little gratified to find so much in correspondence with the opinions expressed in the pages of the Annals. We could gladly present a large part of the work to our readers, but must content ourselves with recommending it most cordially to their perusal.

The Infant Teacher's Assistant for the use of Schools and private Families; or Scriptural and Moral Lessons for Infants, with observations on the manner of using them, by T. Bilby and R. B. Ridgway, Masters of the Chelsea and Hart Street Infant Schools—Revised for schools and families in the United States by the American Editor. Boston: Monroe & Francis. New York: C. S. Francis. 1832. 12mo. pp. 116.

This work contains much that will afford valuable aid to the infant teacher and the parent. It well deserves to be consulted by all who can procure it, especially as it is the result of experience, presented by those who have evidently thought and observed with care. It is not without defects; one of which we think is, the attempt at too much system, and the quaint and mechanical character to which this gives rise.

years old will learn, often with eagerness, and always without much effort, all the regular and irregular verbs; and that will in general prove to be the best grammar for this purpose, in which they are found spread out and developed in all their forms with the greatest distinctness. After having gone through with all the conjugations of the verbs, both regular and irregular, he can learn without difficulty the little there is to learn in most living languages of the inflexions of the articles, pronouns and adjectives, together with the lists of the indeclinable parts of speech. From this time, too, he can begin to use the dictionary; and though the reading lesson should still be translated to him by his teacher, as well as afterwards translated to the teacher by the pupil, still the child will be able gradually to advance with less and less assistance, and will soon read books suited to his age without other help than such as his own means will afford him.

Let us now suppose the pupil, whose course we have thus far followed, to be thirteen or fourteen years old, and to have learnt the French, if that be the language he has pursued, as nearly as circumstances would permit, in the same way he has learnt his own language; let us suppose him to have read a considerable number of children's books in French, such as he would have read if he had been a French boy, and, for the same reason, — for his amusement; let us suppose him, by means of his vocabularies and dialogues, and by the help of his teacher, to have made that little progress in speaking to which every one who learns a living language in a natural method is instinctively impelled; — let us suppose him, in short, at the age of thirteen or fourteen to have acquired such a use of the language as is suited to his opportunities, his years, and the limited range of his ideas and faculties; — what is next to be done? Undoubtedly, the next thing is, to explain to him the reasons and rules for what he has already learnt. It is in short, the period for teaching the Grammar; — not perhaps, the whole of it, at first, but such parts as can be made intelligible and useful; and afterwards in proportion as the faculties are developed, the remainder. This, he could not probably do, even now, with ease or thoroughness if he were embarrassed with the additional difficulties of learning the vocabulary; but, having gone through this, and having little else, on which he is required to fasten his attention, it is become a pleasure to him to learn the reasons, rules and explanation of what, under other aspects, is already familiar to him. In this way, he can be carried, first through the definitions and written exercises in the accidence, with a careful review of all the forms it contains; and afterwards through the syntax, committing the examples perfectly to memory, though not learning the rules by heart; but from this period, so long as he continues a student of the lan-

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Remarks on the Influence of Mental Cultivation on Health. By Amariah Brigham. Hartford. F. J. Huntington, 1832. 12mo. pp. 110.

The Franklin Intellectual Arithmetic, for the use of Schools. By E. Davis, A. M. Principal of the Westfield Academy. Springfield. G. & E. Merriam, 1832. 18mo. pp. 108.

Lectures on School Teaching. By Emerson Davis, A. M. Principal of Westfield Academy. E. Merriam, & Co. Brookfield. 1832.

On Teaching Penmanship. Addressed to Parents, School Committees and Teachers. By Wm. A. Alcott. Boston. Lilly, Wait & Co. 1832. pp 24.

Encyclopædia Americana. Being a Popular Dictionary of the Arts and Sciences. Edited by Francis Lieber, assisted by E. Wigglesworth, and T. G. Bradford. Vol. XI. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 8vo. pp. 612.

Lessons in Latin Parsing, containing the Outlines of the Latin Grammar, divided into short portions, and exemplified by appropriate Lessons in Parsing. By Chauncey A. Goodrich, Professor of Rhetoric and Oratory at Yale College. New Haven. Durrie & Peck. 1832, 8mo. pp. 138.

The Little Reader, a Progressive Step to Knowledge. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832. 16mo. pp. 199.

First Steps to History; being Part I. of a Key to History. By Elizabeth P. Peabody. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1832. 12mo. pp. 89.

Familiar Lessons in Mineralogy and Geology, designed for Young Persons and Lyceums. In two volumes. By Jane Kilby Welsh. Vol. I. Clapp & Hull. Boston. 1832. 12mo. pp. 404.

Philosophical Catechism of the Laws of Man. By G. Spurzheim, M. D. late of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, &c. Boston. Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1832. 18mo. pp. 176.

Letters to a Young Student, in the first stage of a Liberal Education. Boston. Perkins & Marvin, 1832. 18mo. pp. 174.

A Manual of the Chaldee Language; containing a *Chaldee Grammar*, a *Chrestomathy*, a *Vocabulary*, adapted to the Chrestomathy, with an Appendix of the Rabbinical character and style. By Elias Riggs, A. M. Boston. Perkins & Marvin. 8vo. pp. 180.

The Arithmetical Manual, containing exercises for practice, and demonstrations of the rules of written Arithmetic. Prepared for the use of the students in the Seminary for Teachers, Andover, Mass. By S. R. Hall. Andover. Flagg, Gould & Newman, 1832.

Calmet's Dictionary of the Holy Bible, as published by the late Mr Charles Taylor, with the fragments interspersed. The whole condensed and arranged in Alphabetical order. American Edition, revised with large additions. By Edward Robinson, Professor Extraordinary of Sacred Literature in the Theological Seminary at Andover. Illustrated with maps and engravings on wood. Boston. Crocker & Brewster. New York. Jonathan Leavitt, 1832. 8vo. pp. 1003.

The Greek Reader, by Frederic Jacobs, Professor of the Gymnasium at Gotha, and Editor of the Anthologia. The fourth American from the ninth German edition. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1833.

First Lessons in Greek, upon the plan of the First Lessons in Latin. By Charles Dexter Cleveland. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1832.

The Eclectic Reader, designed for Schools and Academies. By B. B. Edwards, Editor of the American Quarterly Register. Boston. Perkins & Marvin, 1832. 12mo. pp. 324.

A View of the Elementary Principles of Education; founded on the Study of the Nature of Man. By G. Spurzheim, M. D. of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians of London. First American Edition, Revised and Improved by the Author from the third London Edition. Boston. Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1832. 18mo. pp. 318.

The Infant Teacher's Assistant, for the use of Schools and private families; or

ciation and the force of the phrases or idioms be particularly attended to. At the same lesson, let them have a verb or part of a verb to learn by heart, and, when the recitation comes, let it be repeated, and let the translation given out be so made that the English can be rendered for each foreign word, and the foreign word for each English one, when separated from their connexions and put out promiscuously. Let this exercise be pursued until all the verbs regular and irregular have been thoroughly learnt, with the inflexions of the articles, nouns, pronouns and adjectives, so far as the mere forms in the accidence are concerned. Then, while still pursuing the same system of translating some pleasant book, let the teacher begin the Grammar regularly explaining the definitions, reviewing the forms, and reading a short English Exercise into the language to be learnt, that, the next time the pupils may read it to him; — and let this process of reading and translating both ways, accompanied with regular lessons in the accidence to be committed to memory, be continued until a common narrative book, like Voltaire's Louis XIV., or Schiller's Thirty Year's War, can be read with little difficulty. After this, but as late as may be found convenient, the Syntax with its examples, which are to be learnt by heart, and its exercises, which are to be written or read, should be gone through with great care, at least twice, in lessons of moderate length and with much previous explanation from the instructor, while at the same time, the pupils may read the highest authors, which their faculties are sufficiently developed to comprehend — Goethe, Molière, or Cervantes — if their years and tastes permit them to enjoy the first order of imaginative genius.

But here, perhaps, it is needful to stop a moment, and consider *what kind of a Grammar* will be most appropriate to pupils of this class, and, indeed, all classes except the very youngest, and what should be the *general character of the Books given them to read.*

As to the *Grammar*, two common defects should be guarded against. The first of these is, that it should not like Levizac's French Grammar and Noehden's German one, contain either philosophical discussions of the principles of Language in general, or even of the particular language to which it is devoted, because such inquiries are suited only to persons of mature minds, and, except in very rare cases, useful only to those, to whom the language is native; while, to *all* learners of the rudiments, they are particularly embarrassing, and to learners *of the usual age*, entirely incomprehensible. — The other defect is, the confusion of the accidence and syntax. It is not, perhaps, easy to keep them entirely apart, and, in many very good grammars there is occasionally a want of exactness in observing the distinctions between them;

but there is one in quite common use — I mean Wanostrocht's French Grammar, — in which this confusion is assumed as the very plan of the work; so that whatever relates to the articles, for instance, whether form or construction, accidence or syntax, is crowded together under that head, and finished before proceeding to the noun, pronoun, &c, which, in their respective turns, are exhibited and despatched in the same manner. And yet nothing seems of more obvious importance than to keep carefully apart whatever relates to learning the forms of a language, from what relates to its construction, since either is troublesome enough in itself, while the difficulties of each being quite different, those of the accidence arising chiefly from the memory and those of the syntax from the judgment, the union of the two and the confounding of both must constitute and does in fact constitute an embarrassment altogether gratuitous and extremely perplexing.

Supposing, then, these two considerable defects to be avoided; the qualities most important in a good grammar, to learn a living language are; — First, that the definitions and explanations in the accidence and the rules in the syntax be short and clear. Second, that the forms in the accidence be exhibited broadly and plainly; as for instance, that the nouns, pronouns, and adjectives be declined at full length in all their forms, and especially that the verbs both regular and irregular be conjugated and developed in the amplest manner; — some of them both negatively, interrogatively, and negatively-interrogatively. Third, that after each definition and form, and after each rule, there be always several, and generally a considerable number of examples to illustrate it; — short, perspicuous, and as much as possible in an idiomatic and conversational style, so that when committed to memory, which they always should be, progress may be made, not merely in the grammar but also in the characteristic peculiarities of the language. Fourth, that, after the examples, should follow Exercises in English, to be written or read in the foreign language, and which, like the examples, should be short and conversational, with a translation of the more difficult words and phrases at the bottom, where they can be covered when recited. And lastly, at the end of the whole grammar, it is convenient to have a few easy fables and other lessons with which to begin reading, and a considerable number of dialogues on the most familiar subjects of conversation, such as are best found in the Manual of Mad. de Genlis, because she took them down as they happened to be held in her presence, and afterward caused them to be translated into the principal languages of Europe. — A Grammar like this, it may be added, should be short. For the French or the German, it would, perhaps, be expedient to extend it to three hundred or three hundred and fifty pages, in duodecimo;

but for either of the other languages usually taught, half that number is abundant.

As to the *books to be used or read* it is possible to make only one or two quite general remarks, since the selection must be governed by circumstances not always within the control of either the teacher or the pupil. It is not well, however, I think, to use collections and extract-books; or, if they cannot be avoided, it is important to take only such as contain each work of an author complete when they give any part of it. Perhaps, however, in many cases, it may be expedient or inevitable to begin with such books; but it can rarely be advisable to go further. They are uninteresting to the learner; they give no proper knowledge, but rather a false impression of the literature they profess to represent; and they are not well adapted to teach even the language itself, because, by changing the manner and style of writing so often, an opportunity is not afforded to become familiar and thorough in any one. It is as if we should attempt to instruct a foreigner in our own language and literature out of two or three of the selections for reading and speaking used in our schools, which, though excellent in the place for which they are designed, would be entirely unsuited to purposes like this. On all accounts, therefore, it is best to begin, at once, with a good book of the simplest kind like Lessings's Fables in German, or one of Mad. Guizot's Tales in French, and go on afterwards with agreeable and interesting narratives or dramas, like Voltaire's Charles XII. in French, and Moratins's Comedies in Spanish, which should be continued until the language has become really easy. When this point has been attained, there is no reason, except such as may be found in the age, the tastes and the means of the pupils, which should prevent them from being carried through any of the authors of established reputation.*

III. Having gone through with the modes of instruction for little children and youth, there remains to be considered only one class of learners, and that is one whose numbers are everywhere constantly diminishing — I mean, *those who have already reached the full maturity of their minds;* and, in years, are arrived at least, as far as manhood. With them, except in a few rare and fortunate instances, there is no easy method. The age of a quick and eager memory is gone by; and the reasoning faculties being fully developed choose rather to learn by the analysis of particulars from generals, than by the induction of generals from particulars. With them, therefore, the grammar and its rules must be more important at the outset, and more relied upon during the whole course, than

* Lest, however, it should seem, that I have proposed an expensive course, I will add, that all the books it implies, need not cost in any one of the modern languages usually taught, more than from ten to twelve or fifteen dollars.

with either of the other classes. They must begin with a strict study of it, and go warily through its definitions and rules, as well as through it forms. It cannot be expected of them to commit to memory the declensions and conjugations, or the examples, with the accuracy any more than with the ease of their earlier years; but still there is no shorter or pleasanter road left to them to attain their object, and if the examples are prepared with proper skill and have an ultimate reference to conversation, they will be found as immediately useful as any exercise such pupils can undertake. From the first lesson they learn, however, they will find it both expedient and agreeable to begin to translate into English; to make the most resolute efforts to accommodate their organs to the pronunciation; and, as soon as possible, they should begin to write the language and write it constantly and a great deal. But, during the whole course of their pursuit, their main reliance must be on the grammar, and on such books as they may be able to read with interest and pleasure.

We have now considered, as far as the limits of such a discourse will permit, the different classes of persons who are to be taught, and the different methods that have seemed, from experience, suitable to be used with each; — never forgetting, however, that in practice, there is no sharp and exact division of classes, by age, but that one is constantly running into another, and that the pupils who would fall under each may often need some modification of the system of teaching proposed for the whole, in order to accommodate it to their respective characters and wants. The divisions, however, that we have gone through, have often been adopted in practice, sometimes because they were thought judicious; but often, perhaps, because they seemed natural or inevitable; while, at the same time, the general methods of instruction recommended have had the sanction of much experience and success, though rather in other countries than in our own. It only remains, therefore, to say a few words on two points immediately connected with the whole subject.

The first is, the *general mode of teaching* all classes and all individuals. Let the instructor bring his mind as much as possible into contact with that of his pupil, so as to feel precisely and fully the nature of the obstacles and difficulties which are from day to day encountered; and then let him remove them all, as far as may be in his power, by personal explanation and assistance. For it is a great mistake to suppose, that the learning a living language, which nature teaches every day so faithfully, without an effort on the part of her scholars, can be made too easy. On the contrary, let the teacher facilitate the progress of his pupils by all the means in his power, explaining everything to them, translating their les-

sons for them, and serving them, as far as he can, instead of Grammar, Dictionary and Commentary; only requiring, that the pupils, on their side, shall faithfully retain what has been thus sedulously imparted to them, and be able afterwards correctly and understandingly to recite or explain it. Above all, let not the recitations themselves, become merely dry and hard examinations in order to ascertain whether prescribed tasks have been accomplished; but let them be seized upon as the golden opportunities for teaching, — as the fortunate moments when the seed will fall on good ground because the pupils will so eagerly and gratefully receive whatever of explanation and assistance may be given them. Let, therefore, the teacher always go first and lead, instead of following to drive his pupils; and especially let him shed all the light of his own knowledge upon the path, which is so familiar and easy to *him*, but which, to *them* is new and full of difficulties. Thus, let him explain and illustrate the rules until it is certain they are comprehended before they are studied. Let him translate beforehand the exercises that are to be prepared, so that they may not only be well done, but done easily and pleasantly. And from time to time, let him read into somewhat free and choice English large portions of the book his pupils may happen to be studying, that they may themselves acquire the power of selecting appropriate words and phrases, and learn, what they can in no other way learn so easily or so well, the corresponding idioms and respective peculiarities of the two languages. In short, let them be *taught*, as well as *required to learn*, and let their recitations, instead of being merely strict examinations become pleasant opportunities for acquiring further knowledge and making easier progress.

The other circumstance to which I referred, is, *the direction to be given to all studies in a living language* in order to insure the greatest amount of success; — the point, I mean, to be set before both teacher and pupil, not indeed, as the one always or even generally to be attained, but as the one, which may be most safely relied upon to determine their general course, and towards which whatever progress they may make, should be directed. This point is, the speaking the language; and the reason why it should mainly govern our course in attempting to learn it is, that, what is idiomatic and peculiar to it, its particles and its phrases, is entirely the result of its use as a spoken language; that in these particles and idioms reside always the difficulties, as well as the essential genius and power of every language; and, that, therefore, as we advance in acquiring its vocabulary from reading and its construction from the accidence and syntax, we should still so select the books we use and the grammar we study, as to be continually making progress in our knowledge of the spoken language and its idiomatic difficulties.

But, it may be answered, "we never intend to speak it; — we only wish to learn to read it, that we may have free access to its written treasures and especially its classic authors; — we do not propose to visit foreign countries, but we wish to read and enjoy at home, Schiller, and Molière, Cervantes, and Dante." Be it so. But what are the chief difficulties in the way of this undertaking, and what is there in these authors that makes it necessary they should be read in the original rather than in translations? Is it not precisely those felicities and peculiarities of idiom and inflexion, which are the result of the formation and use of the language itself as a spoken one; as the vehicle of the feelings and passions of men in the sudden turns of life, its changes and its adventures? Consider, too, who these leading authors are; to what class they belong; and what constitute their characteristic claims, attractions and value. They are precisely the authors in whom the peculiar genius of their respective languages stands forth in the boldest relief; — those in whom the distinctive features of the national temper and character are most prominent; — those, in short, who come to us fresh from the feelings and attributes of the mass of the people they represent, and full of the peculiarities of thought, idiom, and expression which separate that people from all others, and constitute them a distinct portion of mankind. That such authors cannot be understood without some knowledge of the popular feeling and colloquial idiom, with which their minds have been nourished and of which their works are full, hardly needs to be urged or made more apparent. Take the case of the great Masters in our own English. Can any one, who is entirely ignorant of the phraseology, inflexions, and shadings of our spoken language, comprehend the picturesque but homely directness of Chaucer, or the exquisite delicacy of Spenser, or the unapproached power of nature in Shakspeare? Nay, can such a one know in what is hidden the idiomatic simplicity of Addison or Cowper; or can he even read his own contemporaries, Miss Edgeworth or Sir Walter Scott? Nor is it in any respect different in the other living languages, which have succeeded in vindicating for their authors a place among the classical literature of the world. The great masters, in all ages and in all nations, have built on the same foundations and can be successfully approached only in one way. For who can pretend to understand or estimate the untold riches of the elder Drama, of Spain or of its early romantic and popular Ballads; or who will venture to open Don Quixote, who knows nothing of the peculiarities of the Spanish as a spoken tongue? Or who can draw near to Goethe and Schiller and Tieck in the spirit in which their power is revealed, unless he feels in some degree that he is holding intercourse with contemporaries who speak to him, as it were, with liv-

ing voices? Or who can comprehend the quaint simplicity of Lafontaine, or the rich humor and genuine comic power of Molière, if he have never turned his thoughts towards that conversational idiom, to which each resorted for whatever is peculiar both in his beauty and his power. Or, finally, — to take instances, which are the more striking because they seem at first the least susceptible of such application — who can be aware either of the sublimity or the tenderness of Dante, unless he studies that unwritten language from which *alone* this first and greatest master of Italian Poetry could draw his materials or his inspiration; or who else can imagine himself able to comprehend Alfieri, who, casting aside the accumulated literature of five centuries, went constantly, as he himself tells us, to the thronged market place of Florence, there to gather from the lips of the peasantry and the populace those phrases and inflexions, which afterwards thrilled with horror the audiences of Tuscany and Lombardy, and now leave his own great name to close up that long and bright series, at the head of which stands the solemn form of Dante himself. Indeed, on this subject, there is no delusion, no mistake. We *know* that we can none of us read the great Masters in any foreign literature, or enjoy them like natives, because we cannot speak their language like natives. For the characteristic peculiarities, and essential beauty and power of their gifted minds are concealed in those idiomatic phrases, those unobtrusive particles, those racy combinations, which, as they were first produced by the prompt eloquence and passions of immediate intercourse, can be comprehended and felt only by those who seek them in the sources from which they flow; so that, other things being equal, *he* will always be found best able to read and enjoy the great writers in a foreign language, who, in studying it, — whether his progress have been little or much — has never ceased to remember that it is a living and a spoken tongue.

Gentlemen; The general views, so imperfectly developed in this discussion are not new. They coincide with the suggestions made by Lord Bacon, and with the systems pursued and recommended by Cardinal Wolsey and Roger Ascham, by Milton and Locke, and by the vast majority of skilful teachers in those parts of Europe, where Education at the present time, is the best conducted and advanced the furthest. The substance of the whole is, that instruction, to be as effectual as it ought to be, should be communicated not only by books, which are indeed the great means of acquisition, and facilitate it more than all others united, but also by constant and familiar and laborious explanation from the teacher, skilfully adapted to the age, character and progress of his pupil. Before the invention of printing, and, indeed, for some time after-

wards while books were still rare, this oral instruction was necessarily almost the only mode of communicating knowledge not merely of the living languages, but, in general, of all other subjects. Gradually, however, as books were multiplied and especially when they became so much improved, they began to be trusted too much with the business of Education, until, in many branches, and certainly in that of the living languages, results were claimed from them, which it is quite impossible they should produce. In our own country this error was, at one time, all but universal; and even now, I fear, is common. But it is acknowledged by some, perhaps by many; and, is in the sure way to be eradicated by the success of those teachers, who rely not merely upon the dead letter of books, but also upon that living knowledge which is imparted only by living explanation; — nay, which is communicated by the very tones of the voice and the expression of the countenance with a vivacity and effect never found or felt by the most eager lover of acquisition in a cold and silent page.

Art. II. — Education in Virginia.

London Quarterly Journal of Education for July, 1832.

The London Quarterly Journal of Education for July last, contains a very interesting article on the state of Education in Virginia, we presume from the pen of a gentleman lately a professor in the University of that State, which ought to be presented to the American public. We refer to it with the more pleasure, because we hope it will induce our countrymen, in other states, to furnish the European world with an account of our own institutions, through our own publications.

It appears that education was not an object of public concern in Virginia during her colonial state, as it was in the northern colonies; but after the declaration of independence it became a leading subject of attention. A general and complete system of public education was devised by Mr Jefferson, and presented to the legislature in 1779; but it appears to have been too extensive and minute for so early a period. A part of it relating to elementary schools, was adopted in 1779; yet even this was never executed, apparently in consequence of its imposing a tax on the wealthy, for the gratuitous education of the poor.

No other legislative measure was adopted on the subject of education, we are told, till 1809, when an act was passed appropriating all fines, escheats, and forfeitures to a permanent fund "for the en-

couragement of learning," leaving its application to future legislatures. In 1816, a large claim of Virginia upon the United States, was principally applied to the increase of this fund, and commissioners were appointed to devise a system of education. Circulars were addressed by the governor, as president of their board, to the most eminent scholars in the country, requesting facts and opinions on this subject; and, as the result, a system was proposed embracing a *primary school* for each township, an *academy* for each district, and a *university* for the state. This plan however was not adopted.

The following is an account of the final appropriation of the literary fund, and of its results.

'At the next session, 1817-18, it was found that the Literary Fund, by the accession it had received from the grant of the legislature two years before, now amounted to upwards of 900,000 dollars, yielding an annual income of more than 50,000 dollars, exclusive of its occasional accessions from fines and forfeitures. The legislature decided to use this revenue in providing for those species of education which were most wanted in the state, that is, the very lowest and the highest. A permanent appropriation of 45,000 dollars a year was made for the education of the poor, and 15,000 dollars a year for the erection and support of a university. The first sum was to be distributed among the several counties and corporate towns of the state, according to their free white population; and to be placed under the management and control of *school commissioners*, who were to be annually appointed by the courts of the several counties and towns. These commissioners had the sole power of determining the number of children they would educate, as well as the sum that should be paid for their education; and of selecting the particular children (their parents or guardians assenting) to be educated. They were required to make annual reports of their proceedings to the president and directors of the Literary Fund. By a subsequent law these reports are now to be made to the second auditor of the state.

'This law, depending for its execution, first, on the county courts, and then on the zeal and activity of the school commisioners appointed by them, did not go into immediate operation in all the counties of the state. In some, the plan was not viewed with favor, from the belief that the money might be more beneficially used in giving aid to schools of a higher class; and in many, a difficulty in executing the law arose from the repugnance that was at first often felt, even by the poorest individuals, to have their children taught as 'charity scholars,' although it was at the public expense. These obstacles however, gradually disappeared, until all the counties and corporate towns in the state have received the whole, or nearly the whole, of their respective quotas. The progressive operation of the fund may be seen in the following statement, taken from the second auditor's annual report to the legislature at its present session, 1831-2, and the preceding:—

Years.	No. of Counties.	No. of Poor Children instructed.	Average cost of each Child. Dollars.
1822	48	3,298	7,03
1823	90	8,531	5,12½
1824	98	10,226	4,81
1825	99	9,779	4,90
1826	97	9,865	4,48
1827	102	11,007	4,34
1828	102	12,642	3,87
1829	101	11,779	3,33
1830	95	14,169	2,82

'It further appears, from the auditor's report of 1831, that the number of poor children in the state, according to the returns of the school commissioners, amounts to 27,598, which is one-twenty-fifth part of the whole white population, 694,440, and, probably, about one-fifth of the whole number of children between the ages of eight and fifteen; within which limits the above 27,598 children are believed to be comprehended.

'When it is recollected that two years would be amply sufficient to give the elementary instruction proposed by the plan, that is, reading, writing, and arithmetic, the present annual appropriation seems to be quite equal to the education of all the poor children of the state, at a yet higher rate of expense than has been hitherto incurred. Thus, allowing 3,33 dollars for the annual cost of each scholar's tuition (which is the present amount), 45,000 dollars a year would, in four years, be sufficient for the instruction of 27,026 children, giving two years' schooling to each; and in six years it would give the same amount of instruction to 40,539 children, which is fifty per cent more than are supposed to require public aid in seven years. The number of schools in which the 14,169 children were taught in 1830, amounted to 2526, giving only about six children to each school, because few or none of the schools were for poor children exclusively.

'It appears from the mass of testimony exhibited to the legislature in the auditor's report, that although the plan has been attended with very different degrees of success in the different counties, according to the personal character of the school commisioners, whose services are gratuitous, there has been a steady and continued improvement throughout the state in the execution of the law. The money is disbursed more judiciously and economically than formerly; the commissioners are more punctual and methodical in their annual reports; and their treasurers have been subjected to a stricter accountability by a recent law. The present plan, therefore, notwithstanding some inherent defects, is likely to be continued; and it is probably as good as any other that it would be practicable to substitute for it. It has already imparted the knowledge of reading and writing, with all their moral tendencies, probably to fifty thousand human beings, and, ere many years, it will have conferred the same inestimable benefits on twice that number.'

The next legislative measure on this subject was the establishment of a University. It was located at Charlottesville, where buildings and land had been obtained for a college by private subscription,

under the patronage of Mr Jefferson, Mr Madison, and Mr Monroe. These were given to the state to the amount of $40,000. Under the direction of Mr Jefferson, the erection of buildings proceeded to such an extent as to require new appropriations which ultimately amounted to $300,000.* The result has been a large collection of buildings which present a very imposing appearance, and some of which are beautiful specimens of architecture. In 1824, they were so far advanced that preparations were made for opening the University, and a gentleman was sent abroad to procure professors. The public exercises were commenced in the spring of 1828.

'From the measure adopted it appears "that the legislature, by subjecting the university and the primary schools to its immediate supervision and control, has considered the highest and the lowest degrees of instruction as first deserving its attention, leaving the intermediate degrees to be provided and managed solely by the intelligence and liberality of individuals.'

In 1820, a law was passed authorizing the extension of the system of primary schools to all classes, but leaving it discretionary.

'This law gave authority to the school commissioners of each county, whenever they thought the purposes of education would be thereby promoted, to lay off their county into districts, of from three to seven miles square; and as soon as the inhabitants of such district

* As the plan of the buildings is somewhat singular, it may deserve a brief notice. It consists of four parallel ranges, about 600 feet in length, and 200 feet apart, each containing a line of low buildings used as dormitories for the students, relieved at intervals with buildings of greater elevation, which are occupied by the professors and other officers of the institution. Of the three spaces between these ranges, the middle one is a lawn or green, which is open to the south, but terminated at the north by a building which is a copy of the Rotunda at Rome, and just half its linear dimensions. The other two spaces form the back-yards and gardens of the adjoining dwellings. All the architectural decorations which this establishment can boast, are concentrated on the three sides facing the lawn. In front, the beautiful Corinthian portico of the rotunda; on each side, five pavilions, occupied by the professors, exhibiting the different orders of Grecian architecture, and all differing from one another, as well as from the opposite pavilions, either in front or roof, but yet exhibiting sufficient correspondence in their position and general character to form one consistent whole. A low Tuscan colonnade, having its entablature surmounted with a Chinese rail, runs the whole length of each range, save where it is broken by the loftier porticoes of the pavilions. These peristyles serve to protect the dormitories from the sun; they afford a good promenade in bad weather; and their flat roofs furnish to the families of the professors the ready means of intercourse, as well as of enjoying a prospect of the mountain scenery around. The view of the whole from the lawn is very imposing. But the first pleasing impressions of the beholder are somewhat diminished on a nearer examination. He regrets to perceive, from the incongruous mixture of wood and plaster, with brick, stone, and marble, which then meets his eye, that the plan exceeded the means of its undertakers, and that a structure which possesses in so high a degree the beauty of form and proportion, should be wanting in that of durability. The two outer ranges contain, with their dormitories, six larger buildings, which are occupied by those who board the students, and by some of the other officers of the institution. Besides these four ranges there are two detached buildings, one an anatomical hall, containing, besides a dissecting room, a museum of anatomical preparations; and the other a small observatory, provided with some excellent astronomical instruments.

shall have raised three-fifths of the sum required to build a school-house in the district, the commissioners are authorized to contribute the other two-fifths, so, however, as not to exceed ten per cent of the county's annual quota of the 45,000 dollars. They are further authorized to pay a sum not exceeding one hundred dollars towards the salary of a teacher, provided the inhabitants of the district contribute an equal or greater amount; and, at the school thus provided, every white child in the district may be taught gratis. Each school is to be placed under the control of three trustees, of whom the school commissioners are to appoint one, and the private contributors two.

'The motives for the proposed change, were to give the 45,000 dollars greater efficacy in providing schools and teachers, by inviting the co-operation of individuals, and to remove the distinction between the rich and the poor, which was commonly found to be odious, even where it was not sufficient to frustrate the purpose of the charity. But the result of this experiment on public opinion is yet to be ascertained. Of the 105 counties in the state, the school commissioners in 12 only had, in the year after the law passed, either proceeded to lay off their respective counties into districts, or expressed a decided approbation of the law, whilst nearly an equal number, in their annual report to the auditor, seemed to prefer the former system. It remains to be seen, by the future returns from the remaining commissioners, whether their silence is to be attributed to their repugnance to the change, or merely to that tardiness or lukewarmness with which gratuitous public services are commonly executed.'

The subsequent account of the University and college of Virginia presents many interesting details of facts and principles, but our limits do not allow its insertion at present.

The account of the state of Education in Virginia, concludes with the following statement in reference to private schools.

'The private schools in the state are of various descriptions. Of these, the first in repute, and perhaps in usefulness, are academies. These are commonly established by a few public-spirited individuals in a county, or even in a neighborhood, who erect suitable buildings for the purpose, and provide the requisite teachers, commonly two in number. They are generally placed under the superintendence and control of trustees, who are appointed by the legislature, and vested with corporate powers. Their ordinary number of scholars is from thirty to fifty. The Latin and Greek languages, with the elements of mathematics, are all that is taught in these schools. Some of these academies, being in favorable situations, continue to flourish with their first vigor; but many others, after having been in successful operation for several years, gradually fall into disuse from the death or removal of their principal patrons or teachers. But though schools of this description often have this brief existence, their number continues nearly the same. There are at this time about fifty five in the state.

"Nearly of the same character as the academies, and often nowise inferior to them, are those grammar-schools which are instituted and

conducted solely by their respective teachers. In some of these, Latin and Greek alone are taught, and in others mathematics also. The number of these schools may be about twice or thrice as many as that of the academies.

"But the largest part of the youth of both sexes in Virginia receive their elementary instruction in domestic schools. It is very commonly effected in this way. A country gentleman, in easy circumstances, engages a teacher at a moderate salary, from 200 to 300 dollars, exclusive of his board; he then receives the children of his connexions and neighbors as scholars, and some of them also as boarders. In this way he procures for his own children the advantages of society and emulation among those who are of the same age, and pursuits; and the expense of thus educating them under his own eye but little exceeds the tutor's board, which, in a country where the means of living are abundant, is very insignificant.

"The chief difficulty in carrying on any of these schools, is that of obtaining suitable teachers, of whom only a small proportion are natives of the state. Some few of the teachers are Europeans, but the greater part are from the New England states, many of whose educated young men thus follow the occupation of teaching, before they engage in that of lawyer, physician, or divine. This plan would be a very good one for all parties, if the greater part of these youthful adventurers were not very superficially taught; and one of the greatest benefits which the friends of the university promise themselves from that institution, is, that it will supply the country with more competent teachers, and especially with teachers of the classics."

The closing remarks on female education will, we trust, be as deeply felt by our readers, as they are by ourselves.

"No branch of education has experienced more improvement of late years, than that of females. In addition to their participating more largely in the benefits of the domestic schools, which are sometimes attended indiscriminately by children of both sexes, there are many academies established solely for their education. In these, from thirty to forty or fifty young ladies are instructed in polite literature, geography, history, and the elements of useful science. The French language, music, and drawing, are also taught in the greater part of them. There are at this time in Virginia probably upwards of twenty of these female academies, of which there was not one before the revolution; and three fourths of them have been established within the last thirty years. They here acquire that degree of mental cultivation, which, though not sufficient to make them authors or pedants, adds new sources of enjoyment in the secluded life to which most of them are destined, and fits them for discharging the most important duties of mothers. In this latter aspect, female education seems to merit an attention it has not hitherto received. When we consider how much the character of the man, both intellectual and moral, depends upon the impulses received in early childhood, which impulses are principally given by the mother, the due instruction of women seems to be indispensable to the best system of education for men. And he who is not indifferent to the progressive

improvement of society, should regard a well-conducted female school with peculiar interest, because its benefits do not terminate with its immediate pupils, but extend, in a multiplied ratio, to succeeding generations."

Art. III. — Seminary for Female Teachers, at Ipswich, Mass.

Mr Editor, — In a recent excursion into the country, I spent a day in the Female Seminary at Ipswich. I found it conducted, in general, on the same principles as that of Mr Hall, at Andover. But as it also presents some features which are a little peculiar, I have concluded to send you the following account of it, hoping it may at least, be entertaining to some of your readers.

The building occupied for instruction, is on an elevated spot, near the centre of Ipswich. It is tolerably large, and conveniently divided into rooms for study, recitation, &c. There are few, if any, peculiarities in its internal structure, except that a much larger than the usual allowance of space is allowed to each pupil. The building is two stories high, and affords accommodations, I think, for at least 150 pupils. The present number is about 140. None are admitted under fourteen years of age.

The institution is furnished with maps, black boards, a good set of chemical apparatus, and a library, which is well selected.

All those branches which are considered indispensable to a thorough and *useful* English education, are pursued here. The primary object of the school seems to be to provide faithful and enlightened teachers; but the course of instruction is such, as to prepare the pupil for any destination in life.

The Seminary is under the superintendence of two ladies, as principal teachers, and from five to eight assistants; the number varying according to circumstances. The principal teachers, besides their duties to their classes, may be regarded as *educators;* for they pay a strict attention to health, discipline, and morals, both in school and out; though even in these respects, great assistance is afforded by the other teachers. Some of the teachers were educated in this very Seminary. As far as practicable, the pupils, especially those from abroad, board with the teachers. This is an excellent arrangement, and deserves imitation; at least, in *female* schools. It enables the teachers to maintain an important influence.*

* I have intimated that a considerable proportion of the pupils board at the same place with the teachers. Upon further inquiry, I find that the number of those who board with the teachers, is only about thirty. But the general arrangements are such, that they offer advantages almost as great as if this were actually the case. They enter those families — and those only — whose character and habits, and general views are approved by the teachers. Only two pupils are allowed to oc-

Emulation, is not encouraged. The desire of meriting the approbation of teachers, parents, friends, the world around them; — and, above all, the love of mental and moral improvement, for the sake of the pleasure they afford, both in the pursuit, and in the acquisition, seem to be the principal motives to action in this seminary. If these are found sufficiently powerful, and salutary in their influence, why should others be sought which are of doubtful tendency?

It appears to be the persevering aim of all the teachers, but especially of the superintendent, to impress strongly on the minds of the young ladies, that to hurry over a subject without fully understanding it, is of little use; and in some respects, positively injurious. — That a few facts, or *elements*, in any science, thoroughly understood, and made our own property, are far preferable to a greater number, but partially understood, or thrown together in a confused manner.—That many persons who are able to enumerate a long catalogue of sciences which they have studied, are scarcely wiser for any of the common or practical purposes of life, than the parrot or the magpie. — That as in the physical world, all is not gold that glitters, so in the moral and intellectual world, there is much that passes currently for learning and excellence, which will by no means bear the test of a very rigid examination.

It is fully believed by the instructors of this school — and I cannot help according in the sentiment — that where the subjects of instruction have advanced beyond the merest elements, a few leading studies only, should be presented at once. Thus, if the subjects of study be arithmetic, geography, and defining, these are pursued for some time with the closest application; after which, they give place to other studies, for a time, as reading, grammar, and chemistry. Not that other branches are to be *entirely* excluded, during this period. Incidental lessons, by way of variety, and as a sort of recreation and review, are frequently given, and the teachers are in the habit of *moralizing*, and (to coin a term) *intellectualizing* on the daily and hourly occurrences of the school. But the subjects requiring patient investigation and laborious study, are restricted to two at a time. The leading principles by which these instructors are guided, will better appear by a brief account of such exercises as I witnessed; although I saw only a part of those which are usually pursued.

I was admitted at about nine o'clock. Preparation for the daily exercises, morning devotion, &c, had occcupied the previous half hour. When I entered, 50 or 60 of the oldest members of the institution, were reciting their Bible lesson. It was the second chapter of the second book of Kings, where the character of Elisha is pretty fully exhibited.

The first striking event recorded in this chapter, is the fact that the sons of the prophets, like Paul, labored with their hands. The question, *why* Paul and the sons of the prophets labored, was agitated; and whether ministers ought at the present day to imitate their exam-

cupy the same room. And a degree of care, and watchfulness, and christian oversight is constantly exercised by the indefatigable superintendents and teachers, which, I believe, can rarely be expected, unless from parental affection itself

ple; and the young ladies expressed their opinions by raising their hands. A large majority were of opinion that no person, whatever his rank or profession may be, ought to be *ashamed* of labor; but whether he ought actually to labor, was regarded as a question of expediency. Whether all persons would not improve their health by manual labor, was not made a subject of inquiry.

The next subject of attention, was the expression that the axe which fell into the water was "borrowed." Such questions as the following immediately arose, and were severally decided by vote, in the usual manner. "Is it here implied that the man regretted the loss of his axe the more because it was *borrowed*? Do you think mankind generally take better care of borrowed articles, than of their own? Do you know any evil effects resulting from a habit of borrowing? Is it right to use a borrowed article with less care, than if it were our own? Or to retain it longer than we propose at the time of borrowing it? Or to use it for a different purpose? How many of you think that a habit of borrowing induces us to depend less on our own exertions, and more on others? Does the habit of borrowing tend to lessen moral sensibility, and render our feeling of right and wrong more obtuse?"

In regard to the miracle which occurred, they were asked; "If a miracle be a suspension or a counteraction of some law of nature, what law was either suspended or counteracted in the case before us?" Those who knew, were required to raise their hands. Nearly every hand was raised, and one of the pupils being addressed for the purpose, rose and gave a correct answer.

For my own part, I must confess that the history and character of Elisha, together with the civil history of the world in general, at that period, were *never* more clearly presented to my mind than during this exercise. Every occurrence or event mentioned by the sacred writer, led to more or less rational and instructive conversation. The attention of the pupils was secured, and I am persuaded that every one must have received an accession to her stock of ideas, and acquired deeper and more abiding impressions in favor of virtue and piety. I have often wished, since that time, that it had been in my power to have written down the whole exercise. It would form a practical lesson of the very best character, and worthy of being regarded as a model in its kind.

The next exercise I witnessed was in another room, on Botany. The class consisting of about twentyfive of the youngest pupils, were just commencing. The teacher illustrated the different orders and classes of plants, chiefly by specimens recently collected from the fields. Mrs Lincoln's work was the text book — but there was little occasion to have recourse to books in this branch, — as the subject was treated in a manner eminently calculated to render every impression distinct and permanent.

In another room, twentyfive more of the pupils were employed in *defining*. First, the origin and meaning of the word suicide was given. They were especially made to understand that *cide* origina-

ted from the Latin word *cædo*, signifying *to slay*. They were then required to think of all the words, implying the various sorts of murder, and ending in *cide*. Thus they readily mentioned infanticide, matricide, parricide, fratricide, homicide, regicide, and several others. What one pupil could not recollect, were generally remembered by another; so that among them all, every individual of that particular class of words was usually brought up.

They were subsequently required to mention or write upon their slates all the words embracing the Latin preposition *circum*; and then to give their several definitions. *Trans*, *scribe*, and *fy*, were afterwards treated in a similar manner. After giving the definition of each word individually, they were sometimes required to do it simultaneously.

To ascertain how far they understood their subject, as well as to subserve other important purposes, they were requested to write a sentence each, which should embrace a considerable number of words terminating in *fy*. In the space of about *three minutes* they were all prepared to exhibit their sentences. These were read by each young lady to the school. I obtained permission to copy two or three of them from their slates, which are here inserted, without the least alteration, even in regard to punctuation.

"If we wish to have an established character, we shall endeavor to *nullify* our defects, to *mortify* and *rectify* our habits, to *modify* our desires rather than to *gratify* and *satisfy* them indiscriminately, to *vivify* our energies, and *purify* our motives."

"Our teachers will be *gratified* to know that we can *testify* that we have *fortified* our minds in such a manner as to *nullify* all opposition to our rules, and to *rectify* all mistakes and thus to *purify* our conscience, *modify* our dispositions, and prepare ourselves for doing much good."

"To *rectify* incorrect taste, to *mortify* unsubdued passions, and to *vivify* the springs of moral action, requires a continued practice of self denying effort."

But I was assured by the teachers that this was only *one* among many methods, which are adopted of teaching definition. The object is to give them not only a *knowledge of words*, but skill in *applying them correctly*; — or, as a mechanic would say, *the use of tools*.

A part of the school was now convened for the purpose of *rendering their accounts*, as it is termed. This is done to the superintendents in person, and embraces a notice of every failure in regard to conduct, not only at school, but at their boarding houses. It is generally attended to daily; at least every pupil feels her liability to be called upon every day.

It would require so much time and space to give a particular description of the method of taking accounts, that it must be omitted. The plan was at once ingenious and simple, and was conducted in a truly parental spirit. I should have judged beforehand, that such a plan would be liable to fall into contempt from young ladies at their age, and hence become a formal and heartless routine. But facts led to other conclusions. There was evidently a deep and hearty conviction on the part of the majority that the plan was *intended* and

executed solely with a reference to their good, and I could not forbear being affected to witness the results of the exercises. The remainder of the school were examined in a similar manner in another apartment.

Many important facts in regard to the character of the school, and the extent of the teacher's influence over their pupils were developed in the progress of these examinations. The pupils are required to study a certain number of hours, (a small number only) at their rooms, — they are not permitted to make calls during these hours, unless on special occasions ; — they are required to retire to rest at 9 o'clock, and are rarely permitted to go out in the evening ; — to rise at 5 o'clock, — and they are required to keep an exact account of all receipts and expenditures, and report, as often as required to the superintendents. On these and many more points, where parental counsel would be desirable, but cannot be had daily, the teachers in this way exercise a constant watchfulness and supervision. Towards the close of the forenoon, I had the pleasure of seeing an unusual exercise, which consisted in requiring one of the young ladies to communicate some important article of intelligence, which she had acquired by reading the public journals or by any other means. In order to know whether all were attentive, when any fact was stated, every one was made liable to be called upon at any moment, to repeat accurately what had been stated, and the whole school were sometimes required to repeat it simultaneously. Every young lady who makes a statement, is considered responsible for its correctness, and the rest of the school must judge for themselves how far it is entitled to credit.

On the present occasion one young lady gave a brief geographical account of Liberia ; another described the Coliseum at Rome ; another briefly mentioned the uses of Indian Rubber ; a fourth gave an account of the Fig-tree, &c. One of them repeated the following maxim, " In taking revenge, a man is only even with his enemy ; in forgiving him he is his superior."

The afternoon exercises were prefaced by a familiar lecture of thirty minutes, from a gentleman present, on some branches of " Physical Education." The strictest attention was given, although it was easy to discover that his suggestions were not generally new to them ; but that similar views had been impressed upon their understandings from time to time, until a kind of public opinion had been created, the current of which flowed, generally, in the same channel with the sentiments which were advanced by the speaker. Some of them, however, appeared to take notes of the leading ideas ; a circumstance which I am very happy to have it in my power to mention, as the practice is one of great importance.

I next witnessed a recitation on the *Cube root*, by a large class who had just commenced. Great effort was made on the part of the teacher to render this difficult subject intelligible, with the aid of blocks, and other sensible objects, and if these efforts were not attended with complete success, it probably arose, in part, from an error almost uni-

versal, that of not rendering our illustrations *simple* enough. There were also other accidental causes of this result. But we usually *presume* on more knowledge in those whom we address than really exists. Terms which appear simple and plain to us, being often new or unintelligible to the pupil, confound him; especially if they occur often: and if we do not discover and correct our mistake, it often discourages him. The exercises, in the present case, were, however, highly interesting.

The art of reading receives very particular attention. The exercises in this branch consisted in requiring one to read a paragraph, and the next to give their opinions severally on the *merit* of the performance. What was deemed correct reading without any defect, was designated by saying, *Four*. Slight imperfection or inaccuracy reduced the performer, in the scale, to *three and a half*, or *three*. All the exercises which I heard were estimated in the class at *four;* except in two or three instances which occurred, where a few *pupils* placed the performance at *three and a half*. Whether there are any whose reading is estimated in any instance as low in the scale as *one*, or *two*, I did not learn. Only a few sentences or paragraphs were read at a single exercise. But this was only a *single method*, among many which are adopted for the same purpose. Music is taught, according to the latest improvements, and is sometimes accompanied by the piano forte. The utmost pains is taken to have every word which is sung, pronounced so distinctly that the subject can be perfectly understood by any individual present. While I was present, some young pupils were called into the room and directed to stand at the remotest corner, and the class was required, in singing, to speak every word so plainly that those pupils could understand them, and repeat each line after them. As vocal music is a branch with which I am not very familiar, I cannot speak particularly of the success which attends the labors of the teachers in this important art; but it appears to me they are eminently successful.

In the progress of the afternoon, a few moments were devoted to physical exercise, among which I was happy to find calisthenics held a conspicuous place. The other exercises were either in branches which I have already mentioned, or were conducted according to the methods which prevail in other schools. The exercises of each day are begun and closed with prayer.

In concluding this account, I ought to observe that a visit of one day merely, in an institution like this, is quite too short to enable any individual to judge accurately of its character; and I feel that I may not have done it justice. But if this hasty account, imperfect as it no doubt is, shall be the means, in any degree, of enlightening the public mind in regard to the value of institutions like this, my time will not be lost. The Western Review says, that, "If this world is ever to become a happier and a better world, woman, well-educated, disciplined, and principled, sensible of her influence, and wise and benevolent to exert it aright, must be the original mover in the great work." Certain it is, that if our common schools, — those important

institutions where the mass of our citizens receive, after all, the bulk of their instruction — are ever elevated, it must be in a very great measure through the influence and agency of just such teachers as the Ipswich Female Seminary, and others of similar character, are calculated to produce. AN OBSERVER.

ART. IV. — MOTIVES TO STUDY IN THE IPSWICH FEMALE SEMINARY.

[The remark we made in our number for Dec. 1832, concerning the practice of the Ipswich Seminary in reference to Emulation, drew forth the following statement from one of the teachers of the institution, which we are happy to insert, and which fully confirms our views on this point.]

For the Annals of Education.

SINCE the late discussions upon the subject of emulation, the question has often been proposed to the teachers of the Ipswich Female Seminary, "Is emulation excluded from this institution?" Perhaps the following brief sketch of some of the leading means, which have been used to rouse the mind to thought, action and industry, may assist in answering this question.

It is considered important by those who have the care of the institution, that scholars should be moderate in their labors, and temperate in their studies; but as medicine is as necessary for the sick, as food for the healthy, it is considered equally important, to have a system of means adapted to that obtuse and morbid state of mind, which intelligent teachers will often find in their pupils. It is fully believed, that scholars should never study so intensely, as not to allow sufficient room for advancing both in efforts and success in study every succeeding week — that it is unsafe, ever to expend so much interest on any subject, whether it be literary, social, moral or religious, as not to allow the interest to be still greater, at any future time when the subject is brought before the mind.

In the execution of the plans of the school, the teachers are constantly endeavoring to discourage all display of attainments, all trivial distinctions, all direct comparisons of one with another, all preternatural excitement and excessive study, and every academic race, except where all can win the prize — in short, everything which would naturally be followed by reaction. There is a classification of the scholars which might be so managed, as to lay a broad foundation for the exercise of the very principles, which the teachers from year to year have assiduously endeavored to suppress. But if this plan is properly executed, such are not its legitimate results.

The branches pursued in the seminary embrace a regular course, besides some preparatory, and collateral studies. The regular classes are three, denominated Junior, Middle and Senior. At the comple-

tion of the regular course, young ladies receive a certificate, signed by the principal and trustees of the institution.

Requisitions for receiving a certificate. To complete the course, required before receiving a certificate, it is indispensable, that in spelling, chirography, reading and studies of this sort, a young lady should be very correct, unless there be some natural impediment, as there may be in reading — that her acquaintance with arithmetic, both mental and written, should be accurate and familiar — that her knowledge of geography should embrace a thorough and extensive course of modern, and an outline of ancient geography — that she should have a good knowledge of the principles of English grammar — that in composition, she should be able to write clearly and correctly — that in history, she should be familiar with the United States, England, Greece and Rome, and that she should have studied natural philosophy, astronomy, chemistry, and some other of the higher branches. Of younger scholars, the first four books of Euclid are required, and of all, one book at least, unless some other work on geometry has been previously studied.

From year to year, all the young ladies take some of the collateral studies, taught in the seminary, which have not yet been considered an indispensable qualification for receiving a certificate, such as Botany, Political Class Book, Watts on the Mind, Church History, &c. Although they can ordinarily complete the studies of each class in a year, yet those who are very young are generally kept on the collateral studies, and advanced in the classes so slowly, as to have their characters to a good degree formed before they receive a certificate. And it is exceedingly desirable, that young ladies, before they complete the course, should have that general improvement which can be attained only by devoting considerable attention to composition, to English poetry, to the study of the English language in different ways, and to a variety of other subjects.

There are two terms in a year, and pupils are received into school at the commencement of each. But whether they enter at the commencement of the first, or second term, they are not classed till the close of the year. They are then placed in the class which their attainments warrant, without any reference to the previous length of their connection with the school. As none are received into the seminary under fourteen years, most of the young ladies are at least prepared to enter the Junior class at the close of their first year. Although they generally complete each class in a year, yet it is not necessarily so ; they are removed from one class to another, according to their progress and attainments. On the one hand, it is sometimes necessary for an individual to continue in the same class two years, if she is very young, or her previous studies are not well proportioned — or if her regular studies are interrupted by sickness, or any other cause. And on the other hand, a young lady who is very forward in her class at the commencement, and is very successful in her studies during the year, can sometimes pass over one class.

In consequence of the various courses of study pursued by young

ladies previous to their entering the Seminary, the qualifications for *admittance* to each of the regular classes, are somewhat dissimilar. For instance, if a young lady is correct in reading, spelling and chirography, and has been well trained in composition; if in geography, history of the United States, natural philosophy and arithmetic, she is equal to the senior class; if she has completed the first, third and fourth books of Euclid, and if she is attentive and intelligent in the general exercises of the school, she is prepared to enter the Middle class, whatever her age may be; and such can generally finish the whole course with two years of uninterrupted study.

But there is another set of scholars, with different qualifications and attainments, who fall into the same class with these. They are such as are rather advanced in age, have studied many things, and really know a great deal, but whose knowledge is indefinite, and in common things, such as spelling and arithmetic, is often very imperfect. To avoid any foundation for future disappointment, such however, are led distinctly to understand, that it is not certain, when they can receive a certificate; because it is not certain, when they will become thorough in the indispensable, common branches. Every teacher of experience knows, that it is much easier to predict the time necessary for a scholar to gain a good knowledge of three or four of the higher branches, than the time necessary to acquire the habit of spelling correctly.

There are two advantages, gained by this method of classification. One is, that it gives to scholars a standard by which to judge of their own education, and often leads a young lady to come to school, who would otherwise stay at home and do nothing. For example, one, who has studied, or pretended to study, French, Spanish, &c, and gone the round of the whole circle of sciences, comes to Ipswich, "just to finish." She expects, that as everything is not taught here, she shall have but little to do, to stand first in the senior class. She finds herself furnished with sufficient employment, commences studying, and studies on till the end of the year. As the regular time for classing the new members of the school approaches, and she is examined in one thing after another; and as her qualifications and characteristics are more and more distinctly pointed out to her, it becomes obvious to herself, that she cannot respectably complete the regular course of study, with less than one or two years more of close application. Now, perhaps for the first time, she inquires, whether it would not be a good plan for her to continue her connection with the seminary, until her English education is thorough. The desire increases from day to day, till she finds but little difficulty in gaining the consent of her friends, and at the commencement of the new year, she resumes her studies with increased energy, and with that meekness and docility, which cannot fail to gratify every teacher with whom she may be connected. Were it not for the system of classification, it might be difficult to lead her so distinctly to realize her wants, and she might reason, that she could pass through the world just as well with no more improvement, and would probably remain at home.

Another advantage is that it gives to the common studies, the prominence which they deserve, and prevents much of that hankering after sciences of great name, so common among the would-be-learned. It promotes a laudable desire for a well proportioned education. A deficiency in spelling or chirography is not considered either a sure mark, or an unfailing attendant, of genius and talent. Girls from 15 to 17 oftener say to their teachers, "I want to learn to read, to write, and to spell this winter," or "I want to study geography and arithmetic thoroughly this term," than "I want to begin Euclid," or, "I wish I could study chemistry and astronomy."

To ascertain their scholarship, each scholar undergoes an individual examination on all the requisite studies. The two plans, of examining scholars in small circles, and each one by herself, have been extensively tried, and the combined experience of the teachers is in favor of the latter, except in branches, which can be very much more conveniently conducted in circles, than with individuals. The advantages of examining each young lady alone in such studies as geography and history, are very obvious, in checking rivalship, preventing comparisons with each other, &c. The labor of examinations is distributed among the teachers; the same teacher examining the whole school on the same branch. The pupils are marked on a scale from one to four, calling those *four* who have a competent knowledge of the subject. No difference is made in deciding the point, whether a young lady has attended to a branch here or elsewhere. The examining questions are general and scattered, designed to test the pupil's actual knowledge of the branch as a whole.*

In six or eight minutes, a prompt scholar would be able generally to answer all these questions, and from the *manner* and matter of her replies, a correct judgment could be formed of her amount of knowledge. Those who know little or nothing, can of course, be despatched in much less time. The questions are proposed very familiarly, and apparently produce no more excitement or embarrassment,

*In the history of England, the following may serve as a specimen.

When did the Romans take possession of Great-Britain? How long did they continue on the island? What did they do while there? Were they driven from the island? Was Christianity introduced before they left? Who next conquered the Island? For what purpose did the Saxons go to England? Which of their kings was greatly distinguished? Who conquered the Saxons? What Danish kings were distinguished? Who was the first Norman king? What right had William to the throne? How did he obtain it? Who was his competitor? What long civil war in the nation? Between what houses was the war of the Roses? How long did it continue? Which house was successful? What king of England was beheaded? Who succeeded Charles I.? Which reign was best for the nation, — that of Henry VII, or Henry VIII.? Why? What distinguished daughters had Henry VIII? Which reigned first? Did Mary succeed her father immediately upon his death? To what house did Mary and Elizabeth belong? What family now hold the government? For what was John distinguished? Richard III.? Who was the Black Prince? In whose reign was the war with Scotland, in which Wallace was distinguished? In whose reign was the war with the colonies? What kings were engaged in the crusades?

in the young lady herself, than an every day recitation; and as for her companions, it seems seldom to enter their minds, that they have anything to do in the affair.

The young ladies become well acquainted with their own positive amount of knowledge. During the time of examinations, the pupils are led to a sober retrospect of the past, which indelibly fastens on the mind a just impression of past faithfulness or unfaithfulness. The teachers, who have been through hundreds of these solitary examinations, and carefully observed the effect on the minds, manners, dispositions, and resolutions of the scholars, are of opinion, that no system of rewards and punishments can be more effectual in reproving the careless, convicting the conceited, inciting the indolent, enlightening the superficial, and encouraging the faithful. As they are examined in one thing after another, one will go to a teacher and say, "I know I ought not to be classed now, for I have not studied well this term, but if I come again, I mean to study harder than I have done;" another will say, "Do you think I can make up my arithmetic, so as to be classed in the middle class by another year?" and another, "I want to spell next term every day, till I am marked four."

About the time the examinations are completed, the Principal carefully explains the principles of classification. There is not sufficient knowledge among the young ladies, of their comparative attainments, for the exercise of genuine rivalship. They hope positively, that they may fall into a certain class, rather than that they shall go as high as a certain companion. At the close of the last year, when informed how they were classed, not more than four out of the hundred and twenty manifested any excitement about it. Now and then, an unreasonable temper is irritated; but such effects are so rare as to be looked at as anomalies. Young ladies of common sense are cautious how they express dissatisfaction, either in regard to themselves or others, even if they feel it.

The advantages of these examinations are not all immediate, but continue from term to term. Half the present scholars were members of the school last summer. The teachers derive some assistance in planning their business, from their exact knowledge of their necessities, but this is not by any means the great advantage to this part of the school. The more careless pupils evidently feel, that a reckoning day is coming. They rarely ask to be excused from studying those branches in which they are deficient, merely because they have studied them before. If a pupil feels, that she should prefer attending to astronomy, to the History of the United States, it is necessary only to turn to the records, and say, "You were marked but two," or "You were marked but one in this branch," as the case may be; and no more complaint is heard.

It will be readily seen, that this course must consume a vast amount of time and labor on the part of teachers, but it is believed that all is more than repaid by the favorable results.

The requisites for a certificate have gradually been made more

and more definite, and the standard has been constantly rising from year to year. But it is ardently hoped, that the general standard of female education, will, ere long, allow many of the branches now pursued in the Seminary as occasional and collateral studies, to be placed among those termed indispensable. The plan of individual examinations has never been fully executed exactly as described, till the last year. But in this sketch, things have been described *just as they are*, without the addition of a single item from the various anticipated improvements in the system of means employed in the Seminary, to rouse the mind to thought, action and industry.

Art. V. — State of Instruction in Geneva, Switzerland.

According to Hassel's tables, Geneva must contain about 25,000 inhabitants. We are not a little surprised, therefore, to find from a 'Report on Primary Instruction, made to the Academic Society of Geneva, by Prof. De Roches, on behalf of a Special Committee,' and translated from a Geneva paper for the 'Friend' of Philadelphia, that the whole number of children of both sexes, from 5 to 12 years of age, is only 2,726. For the *proportion* in the State of New York would require that there should be 3,620, between the ages of 5 and 10, and probably 4,500 between 5 and 12.

Of this number, however, 2,536 receive some kind of instruction. There are, in the public schools, which are conducted on the plan of simultaneous instruction, 673 pupils; in the schools for mutual instruction, 500; in private schools, 837; besides which 526 receive a domestic education; leaving only 190 wholly destitute of instruction. It appears therefore that one fifth of the whole number of children receive private instruction. Nearly all of these however are females; and we cannot pass over this circumstance without observing, that the females of Geneva are remarkable for a high degree of intellectual and practical cultivation. The Report developes several curious facts.

In the Lancasterian schools, those who have entered between 5 and 7 years of age, have at a medium spent 44½ months in learning orthography, — those who enter after the age of 7, but 27 months. In arithmetic those who commenced before the age of 9, were 33¾ months performing their course, — those who entered after nine, 21¼. It is hence concluded, that there is not, in ordinary capacities, any benefit in point of time, in beginning at an earlier age those studies which demand the exercise of the reasoning powers.

Perhaps the facts stated are not sufficient to establish this conclusion entirely; but we have seen much to satisfy us that even *immediate* progress is not always in proportion to the earliness of the period of instruction; and that the ultimate vigor of intellectual efforts is as much impaired, as the strength of an animal, by premature labors.

Another instructive result mentioned in the Report is the fact, that in comparing the boy's schools with those of the girls of the same age, it was found that the girls finished their studies in nearly the same time as the boys, although one half of the day is spent in sewing, and other exercises peculiar to the sex. This result is ascribed *partly* to the greater precocity of girls, both physical and intellectual; but *chiefly*, however, to the fact that the mind of a child 'adapts itself with greater effect to the acquisition of knowledge when many things are learned at once, than when confined to only one or two.' We should rather ascribe it in this case to the alternations of intellectual and manual employments; and we consider it a most important testimony in favor of their combination. It is hence concluded that each class of knowledge stands in need of 'a certain portion of time to become established in the mind,' and that 'we should not attempt roughly to hasten it, but to turn the vacant periods to advantage, by laying the foundations of other kinds of knowledge.' We think these conclusions as just as they are important, however unpopular they may be.

If these last views are well founded, they serve greatly to enhance the importance of the Lancasterian or monitorial system of instruction, in which a greater variety of simultaneous exercises are usually admitted, than in the ancient systems. In the Lancasterian schools of Geneva and adjoining towns, either music or linear drawing, or both, have been extensively introduced, and without retarding the progress of the pupils in other branches.

A third important principle in education is confirmed by the Report before us, viz. that gratuitous instruction is less valuable than that for which the parents make some remuneration; and hence the danger of large funds for this purpose. 'The necessity of paying something for instruction has a special tendency to excite parents to greater attention to the condition of their children, to their lessons, their progress, &c; for more value is attached to those things for which we have to pay, than to those which cost us nothing. The average expense of each child on the two systems (the Lancasterian and the old,) is about fifteen francs a year, and yet there are some parents too poor to pay even that; in which case the deficiency is supplied, at least in part, by charitable donations, but in such a manner, that neither the children nor the masters are acquainted with the source from which the money comes.'

Such is the language of the report on a point which we think experience had fully established long ago, but on which there still remains much skepticism.

In the progress of this valuable and highly interesting report, a further comparison is instituted between the advantages and results of the two methods of instruction.

'By the *direct* method, children in two or three years may learn to read and write well. They have made a positive advancement. By *mutual* instruction, they learn within the same period, in part, reading, writing, orthography, and arithmetic, but *neither of them perfectly*. This objection, often repeated by parents, is more apparent

than real; for, on the one hand, reading and writing are of little importance to him who learns nothing more; and on the other, he who has passed through the system of mutual instruction, wants only practice to bring his knowledge into useful developement. Orthography and arithmetic cannot be learned by chance.

'It is a very common error among philanthropists to believe that to have taught people to read and write is to have enabled them to turn this knowledge to great profit; but whole communities attest the error of this conclusion. Something more must be learned to *bring out* the intelligence. Orthography and arithmetic are, among elementary branches, those which cause the child to reflect the most, and dispose him most effectually to turn his knowledge of reading and writing to a good use. Public instruction, it must be observed, is intended for the mass of the people; and if some parents are disposed to withdraw their children from school before they have gone through a regular course, they must not complain that their knowledge is imperfect.'

On the subject of rewards and punishments we find the following judicious remarks; "The system of rewards and punishments, practised in the old methods, is very imperfect in its effects in primary instruction. It is not well suited to the nature of the case. What is a prize which is obtainable only at the end of the year? A year is an age, to a child of eight. Something of more frequent recurrence, and more like the realities of life is necessary. This is obtained on the other system (the monitorial) by continual change of place, which keeps the mind awake, and accustoms the pupil to the continued alternation of reverse and success, which is habitually the condition of man.'

The objections to the Lancasterian or monitorial system are finally considered in the Report; all of which, excepting one, are regarded as of little weight. The fact that the system renders instruction mechanical, is admitted, but it is insisted at the same time, that children who are young, cannot be *made* to understand the metaphysical principles of grammar, arithmetic, &c, even by the old methods; and that on this account, the best course is to give them practical results, in simple, intelligible and well digested forms.

In conclusion, the Committee who framed the Report, unitedly propose to introduce the system of mutual instruction into the schools in Geneva.

Art. VI.—Review of Brigham on the influence of Mental Cultivation upon Health.

Remarks on the Influence of Mental Cultivation upon Health. By Amariah Brigham. *Hartford. F. J. Huntington.* 1832. 12mo. pp. 116.

Is not that the best education which gives to the mind and to the body all the force, all the beauty, and all the perfection of which they are capable? PLATO.

S'il est possible de perfectionner l'espece humaine, c'est dans la medicine qu'il faut en chercher les moyens. DESCARTES.

The subject of this work is one at all times of great importance, but especially so, at a period when every effort is made to carry mental cultivation to the highest degree of intensity; and to extend it to every class of the community, and to every period of life. We expressed in a former number, our interest in this work, and we avail ourselves of the first opportunity, to fulfil our promise of presenting our readers with some account of its contents.

In his preface, the author observes that the intellectual character of the age, and the fact that the culture of the mind is the principal means of advancement in a republican country, have produced a strong tendency among us to excessive intellectual developement. He says, with too much truth, that parents are disposed, on this account, to urge their children forward in intellectual attainments, without sufficient attention to the fact, that the body is in danger of being permanently enfeebled by premature efforts of the mind, and thus their ultimate object, in a great measure, defeated.

The principal design of the work before us, is to explain the connection of body with mind; and to show the importance of attending to the one, in order to secure the greater power of the other.

The first point established, is the fact, that the brain is the material organ by which the mind acts, and that the healthy state of this important part of the body, depends materially upon the nature, and degree of mental occupation.

That the state of the mind is affected by that of the brain, is abundantly proved by the effect of injuries upon the head, and by the fact that derangement is almost always found, when examination is made, to be connected with a diseased state of this organ. It is therefore obvious, that any course which tends to injure the brain, must ultimately impair the mental powers, and may produce that most awful of human diseases, the loss of reason.

Dr B. next presents a very interesting analysis of the nature and changes of the brain. It increases in size, from the weight of ten ounces in infancy to that of three pounds and a half in adult years; and is usually found to be enlarged in proportion to the degree of mental occupation. The brains of Byron and Cuvier, weighed nearly a pound more than the ordinary standard. The head of Napoleon, which was small in youth, enlarged in after life, to an extraordinary size. The size of the brain remains stationary,

during manhood, and gradually diminishes in old age. The proportion and size of its respective parts, vary continually. During childhood, it is very soft, is supplied with an unusual quantity of blood, and increases with more rapidity than at any other period of life. Its weight is nearly doubled at the end of the first six months. On this account, there is a peculiar tendency to diseases of the brain and the nervous system in childhood; and hence it is especially important at this period of life, to avoid any extraordinary excitement, and to adopt a course of training, which shall diminish, rather than increase the activity of these organs. No maxim is more generally admitted in *common life*, than that every portion of the body is enlarged, and rendered more active by exercise; and from this simple principle it may be seen, that an improper degree of mental occupation, must increase this dangerous activity of the brain. But it is a well established fact in Physiology, that close application of mind occasions a preternatural flow of blood to the head. It thus either produces a fullness, and tendency to inflammatory disease, or an enlargement of size and rapidity of action, which are disproportionate to the rest of the system; and if no relief is given, it must as certainly cause the destruction or premature decay of the machinery, on which it operates, as the swollen stream of a mill, or the overcharged boiler of a steam engine.

It is a fact of no small importance in the present case, that this extraordinary activity is no evidence whatever of extraordinary powers of mind. Let the brain be overcharged with blood, either by the effects of fever, or of alcohol, or opium, or by the influence of strong excitement of feeling, by, surprise, anger, enthusiasm, &c, and we find the same extraordinary activity produced. The delirious man, of ordinary capacity, will often astonish us by the extent and variety of his thoughts, and the force of his expressions; one who is heated with anger or enthusiasm will overwhelm us with a torrent of eloquence of which he was before incapable; and a man who never rises above the level of dulness, in his natural state, will be roused to a remarkable degree of sprightliness, and wit, by a few glasses of wine; but when the excitement is passed, both descend to their usual level of mediocrity or stupidity, and often far below it. Could this state of excitement be maintained for a length of time, we should have a case precisely parallel to that of a precocious child, whose brain is unnaturally developed, either by providential disease, or by improper training. It is not surprising, therefore, that the same reaction should take place, and that Zerah Colburn and a multitude of others, who have been prodigies in childhood, should exhibit only an ordinary capacity in their riper years; or should even find their mental powers exhausted by the premature efforts to which they were led.

On the other hand, Dr B. observes —

"The early history of the most distinguished men will I believe lead us to the conclusion, that early mental culture is not necessary, in order to produce the highest powers of mind. There is scarcely an instance of a great man, one who has *accomplished* great results, and has obtained the

gratitude of mankind; who in early life received an education in reference to the wonderful labors which he afterwards performed. The greatest philosophers, warriors, and poets, those men who have stamped their own characters upon the age in which they lived; or who, as Cousin says, have been the 'true representatives of the spirit and ideas of their time,' have received no better education, when young, than their associates who were never known beyond their own neighborhood. In general their education was but small in early life. *Self Education*, in after life, made them great, so far as education had any effect. For their elevation they were indebted to no early *hot-house culture*, but, like the towering oak, they grew up amid the storm and the tempest raging around. Parents, nurses, and early acquaintances, to be sure, tell many anecdotes of the childhood of distinguished men, and they are published and credited. But when the truth is known, it is ascertained that many, like Sir Isaac Newton, who, according to his own statement, was 'inattentive to study, and ranked very low in the school until the age of twelve;' or like Napoleon, who by those who knew him intimately when a child, is described as 'having *good health*, and in other respects was like other boys,' do not owe their greatness to any early mental application or discipline. On the contrary, it often appears, that those who are kept from school by ill health or some other cause in early life, and left to follow their own inclination as respects study, manifest, in after life, powers of mind which make them the admiration of the world. Such were Shakspeare, Moliere, Gibbon, T. Scott, Niebuhr, W. Scott, Byron, Franklin, Rittenhouse, R. Sherman, Prof. Lee, Gifford, Herder, Davy, &c."

We do not adduce these examples, nor does Dr B. with the view of persuading parents to leave their children to the same neglect, which some of these distinguished men suffered. We should, however, esteem it a most happy result, if we could thus relieve them from that morbid anxiety, which can never rest, if their little ones cannot babble forth hundreds of words, which they do not understand. We should rejoice if we could thus prevent them from reproaching and deserting those teachers who are less cruel in enforcing upon the infantile body and mind that Egyptian bondage, which custom has sanctioned, and which a child who was asked, what it did at school, described with so much simplicity and point — "I say *a* — *b*, and sit on a bench." In the hope of confirming them in this feeling, we may quote the opinion of Tissot, one of the first medical writers of the last century, and one of the most accurate observers of the habits and diseases of literary men.

"The employment for which your children are destined in after life, should regulate their studies in youth, not requiring, as is the custom with many parents, the most study in early life, of those who are to be devoted to literary pursuits, but on the contrary, the least.— Of the infants, destined for different vocations, I should prefer that the one who is to study through life, should be the least learned at the age of twelve."

Let not parents be anxious then, so long as their children are acquiring that strength of constitution which is indispensable to their happiness and success in life, and that improvement of character, without which, all else is useless; even if they cannot repeat the

names of things unknown, or reason about the principles of science and the processes of art.

Still more earnestly do we wish that no fond parent be deceived by unusual powers of memory, or of reason, in the early periods of childhood. They are more frequently the indications of a diseased body than a superior mind — the precursors of premature decay or of early death — than of that bright youth and useful manhood, to which he looks forward as the hope of his life, and the cordial of his age.

But however mistaken parents may be gratified by this precocity, Dr Brigham entreats them, when such a state of the brain exists, to calm its excitement, instead of rousing, still more, faculties which are already overstrained. They should rather seek to check this unreasonable appetite of the mind, as they would an unnatural desire for food, than to gratify it. He observes very justly;

"Much of the thoughtlessness of parents regarding the injury they may do their children by too early cultivating their minds, has arisen from the *mystery* in which the *science of mind* has been involved, and ignorance of the connexion between the mind and body; for we find they are exceedingly anxious and careful about the health of their children in other respects. Entirely forgetful of the brain, they know there is danger in exercising many other parts of the body too much, when they are but partially developed. They know that great caution is necessary with children as respects their food, lest their delicate digestive organs should be injured by a too exciting and stimulating regimen. A parent would be greatly alarmed if his little child, by continued encouragement and training had learned to eat as much food as a healthy adult. But such a prodigy of gluttony might undoubtedly be formed. The method to effect it would be somewhat like that of enabling a child to remember, and reason, and study with the ability and constancy of an adult. Each method is dangerous, but probably the latter is most so, because the brain is a much more delicate organ than the stomach."

We are not indeed professionally acquainted with physiology, but years of ill health, connected with excessive mental occupation, have forced upon us, both from experience and the counsels of physicians, much of that knowledge which Dr B. remarks ought to be possessed by every educator; and we venture to speak with some confidence of the pernicious effects of intellectual gluttony. No question can exist that too much exertion of the mind, especially in childhood, renders every disease more dangerous, and often defeats the effects of remedies which would be efficacious on those less gifted.

On this point, the opinions of the most celebrated physicians seem to be unanimous. Tissot remarks;

"Long continued application in infancy, destroys life. I have seen young children, of great mental activity, who manifested a passion for learning far above their age; and foresaw, with grief, the fate that awaited them; they commenced their career as prodigies, and finished by becoming idiots, or persons of very weak minds.

"No custom is more improper and cruel than that of some parents, who exact of their children much intellectual labor, and great progress in study. It is the tomb of their talents and of their health."

Hufeland says, that by too early study, "the nervous system acquires a predominance over all others, which it preserves for the remainder of life; producing innumerable nervous complaints, melancholy, hypochondria," &c.

Ratier, in a Prize Essay on this subject, remarks;

"The labor of the mind, to which some parents subject their children not only too soon, but in a wrong direction, is often the cause of their bad health, and causes nearly all those who are distinguished by precocity of the intellectual faculties, to perish prematurely; so that we seldom see a *perfect man*; that is, one who exhibits an equilibrium of the Physical, Mental and Moral faculties."

A late writer on dropsy in the head, observes that, "the present education, in which the intellectual powers are prematurely exercised, may be considered as one of the causes of the more frequent recurrence of this disease." Dr Jackson remarks; —

"In an early age, before the organism has acquired its proper developement, the brain its perfect consolidation, or the organs are confirmed in the order of their existence, premature exercises of the intellectual faculties are the source of many disorders. By the undue excitement of the brain, its organic functions are augmented unnaturally, the organic actions of the organs of nutrition, secretion, &c, are enfeebled; the muscular system is stunted and debilitated; the nervous system becomes morbidly irritable; and the brain subject to a variety of affections. Those highly gifted with precocious intellects possess miserable health, and are generally short lived; they are cut off by chronic inflammations and disorganization of their viscera, or by acute inflammation of the brain."

In addition to these immediate evils, the tendency of excessive mental excitement to produce insanity, is well established; and forms an additional ground for caution. The registers of hospitals, the history of different periods of the world, and the statistics of insanity in several countries, sufficiently show this. Statesmen, politicians and literary men are most frequently subjects of derangement. This disease is uncommon in China, Turkey, Spain, and Russia, where, from the structure of government and the habits of the people, the mind is little excited. It is more prevalent in France and central Europe. England, with more intelligence and activity of mind, has more insanity than any country in Europe; and if recent calculations may be relied upon, the United States have more than twice as many deranged persons, in proportion to their population, as any other country in the world. The intense activity of mind, produced by the universal instruction of the people, and the strife for wealth and power, to which all are led by our institutions and habits, are doubtless among the principal causes of this sad difference.

Dr Brigham believes that the neglect of physical education, and the excessive excitement of the female mind by the intellectual efforts demanded from it in the present mode of education, have also much influence in producing this result.

In reference to the latter point, it is very natural that in examining the long list of arts and sciences proposed to be studied in our female seminaries, alarm should be excited in the mind of every man who

knows the effects of excessive intellectual effort on the susceptible nerves of females. But we suspect a full inquiry would show, that fashion, and prejudice, and economy, almost uniformly neutralize this danger. They would not indeed be satisfied with a less copious list of branches of instruction; but they will not permit that any one should be pursued to such an extent, or for such a length of time, as to endanger that excessive study, which is so common in the institutions for the other sex. Sometimes, it is true, they require too intense effort for two or three years, in order to run over this great variety of subjects; but we suspect this has not so large a share in producing the results in question, as Dr B. imagines. On the contrary, we believe the greatest evils arise from that neglect of exercise, of exposure to the open air, and of active employments, which is now so universal with females during the period of youth, and from the influence of fashionable dress and fashionable habits.

We believe the remark of Dr B. is perfectly correct, that "there is probably no country where women, belonging to the wealthy class, exercise so little, especially in the open air, as in this." And it is not less true, that the labors of females of other classes, are much more limited to the house, than in most countries of Europe.

In short, we suspect they must be ascribed chiefly to the third cause, assigned by Dr Brigham — the sad neglect of physical education; and this we agree with him in believing, is one of the most fruitful causes of debility of constitution and feebleness of character. This neglect leads as certainly to the decay of individuals, and of course, ultimately, of the community and the nation to which they belong, as positive excess in intellectual efforts. When both are combined, no human power can arrest the progress of decline, whether in one person or in great numbers. And this progress will be more rapid and ruinous when it commences with that sex who will give to the next generation, to a great extent, their constitution and character.

But that predominance of the nervous system, which is so obviously produced by excessive mental excitement, gives rise to evils more serious than bodily disease. It impairs directly the moral energy. It renders the will feeble and vacillating, and almost excludes the possibility of that energetic and persevering action, which is indispensable to the accomplishment of great objects, or even to the faithful performance of daily duties. And while the power of the will is thus diminished, the nerves become unnaturally susceptible to those objects which excite appetite or passion, as well as those which produce intellectual activity. Strange as it would appear at first sight, excessive intellectual action often leads, in this way, to excessive sensuality. In evidence of this we might refer to many examples of those literary men, whose mental action has been most intense, and whose productions have been most brilliant. We have formerly stated that at Hofwyl more than one instance had occurred, in which it was necessary to diminish the amount of a pupil's intellectual ef-

forts, in consequence of the alarming tendency to sensuality, which it produced. The same general truth is illustrated by the comparison of nations and communities, in different stages of civilization. While a certain degree of culture will diminish the sensuality of a savage tribe, or of a new colony, it rolls back in overwhelming waves upon those nations who have attained the height of cultivation and refinement, and whose intellectual faculties have been cultivated beyond the due proportion to their moral faculties.

Painful as the conviction is, it is forced upon us by our own observation of the past, the present, and the rising generations, that the process of decay has begun in our country, under the combined influence of causes which Dr Brigham assigns in the work before us. We look round almost in vain, for that vigor of constitution, that energy of character, that capacity for enduring hardships, that fortitude and perseverance in surmounting difficulties, which converted a wilderness into the fruitful land which we inhabit, and which raised us from colonial bondage, to the rank of the freest and happiest nation on earth. We fully agree with the author of this work in considering it "*a subject demanding the attention of the patriot and the philanthropist,*" and we will add *of the christian.*

The practical result to which these principles tend, is as simple as that which is derived from a system of regimen for the body. — All indulgence of excessive intellectual activity, all efforts of mind which are forced or unnatural, whether of the reason, of the memory, the imagination, or the affections, are especially dangerous during childhood. At this period of life, the brain should never be compelled to perform a task which is laborious to it, nor excited to efforts which are unnatural, either by threats, or promises, or rewards, or persuasions; nor even suffered to attempt excessive acquisitions. Above all, it is cruel to employ the affections, or to rouse the passions, as a means of urging the child to mental labor, and thus exhaust it by the double excitement of intellect and feeling. In short, let the rule —"Be temperate in all things; be anxious for nothing" — be made the guide of the infant as of the adult, and be applied as watchfully and constantly to the mind, as it is to the body.

If it be asked, "What is excess — What are the bounds of temperance?" — we may reply by asking — What is excess, and what is temperance in eating? — The answer must in every case be regulated by the constitution and powers of the individual, and not by any fixed rule. We find, however, that as the brain does not appear to be completely formed until the seventh year, it is the general opinion, of medical men "from the highest antiquity," that close application of mind should not be required during the first six years of life.

But we hear the inquiry from some of our startled readers, — "Are our children then to grow up in ignorance? Would physicians starve them in order to prevent their being surfeited?" Far from it. A similar objection has been made and answered a thousand times, in reply to the arguments and directions for moderation in food. It is made only

from the feeling, which our immediate sensations encourage, that the strength acquired, is in proportion to the quantity of food devoured; and without any reference to the fact, that all which is not digested, however wholesome in itself, is but a load upon the system, which produces nothing but oppression and disease. These wise advisers do not propose that children should grow up ignorant; for this would be impossible without confining them, like Caspar Hauser, in darkness and silence. But they urge, that during the first years of life, the periods of direct instruction should only be occasional and brief, that we should suffer the mind to acquire ideas by ranging among the world of objects, instead of confining it to the mere marks of sounds — the letters and words of a language — and at the same time, enfeebling the body by the impure air and close imprisonment of a school-room for six hours in the day. Still they would cheerfully admit, that even this is far better than a similar confinement in many of the abodes of poverty, or negligence, or vice. They beg parents to be satisfied while the mind and the brain are yet so immature, with the knowledge which a child is eagerly and constantly drinking in, from every object which he sees, and every sound which he hears, and every individual with whom he converses — knowledge incomparably better adapted to expand and improve the mind than the mechanical repetitions of lessons which do not reach the understanding or affect the heart. They would simply require that the rule, to feed babes "with milk and not with meat," should be applied to intellectual as well as to moral subjects.

They would also urge, that our Infant and Primary schools should be rendered asylums of infancy, where it may resort for that affectionate and constant care which the circumstances, or health, or character of its parents may render impossible at home — a care which should watch over the body and the heart — as well as the intellect. The wisest and ablest observers of the infant mind unite with the immediate guardians of the body, in protesting against that system which converts these *asylums* into *intellectual hot-houses*, where the child is urged forward by every motive which ingenuity can devise, or affection and often piety can present, to an intensity and amount of effort altogether disproportioned to its strength, and whose ultimate effect must be to impair the vigor of the body and the energy of the mind.

INTELLIGENCE.

Wesleyan University at Middletown.

We have received a Catalogue of the Corporation, Officers and Students of this new University, which promises, under the care of President Fisk, to take a high stand among the kindred institutions of learning. The number of students is about sixty. — We subjoin the names of the faculty, together with some particulars which strike us as interesting.

Faculty. — Rev. Wilbur Fisk, D. D., President, and acting Professor of Moral Science and Belles-Lettres. Augustus W. Smith, A. M., Professor of Mathematics, and Professor of Natural Science. Rev. John M. Smith, A. M. Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature, and acting Professor of Natural Science. Rev. Jacob F. Huber, Professor of Modern Languages.

All the studies pursued at the University, are divided into departments, or general classes, with a professor at the head of each. The number of these departments will be increased, as the means and wants of the University shall increase. At present they consist of five, viz: — I. Moral Science and Belles-Lettres; II. Mathematics; III. Ancient Languages, and Literature; IV. Natural Science; V. Modern Languages.

The students of each department are divided into sections, so as to accommodate their different degrees of advancement, without any reference to their standing in the other departments, or to the time they have been members of the University. Any student may take a partial or an entire course, as may suit his circumstances; and when regularly dismissed, shall be entitled to a diploma, according to his attainments. — But no one will be entitled to the collegiate degree of Bachelor of Arts, except he pass a thorough and satisfactory examination in the entire classical course. Whenever he does this, he will be admitted to his degree, without regard to the time he may have been in the University.

Daily bills of merit and demerit, are kept of each student — the former denoting the excellencies of each in his recitations, and other College exercises — the latter, the deficiencies and delinquencies of each in his respective duties. The President will furnish an exhibit of these records in any particular case, when requested by the student or his friends; and in all cases where the delinquencies exceed a certain number, and where private and public admonition have been given without effect, a statement of the bill of demerit will be forwarded to the friends of such delinquent scholars. This will be the last step of discipline, preceding the final one of suspension or dismission. The Faculty are determined, that the University shall not be infested, and the whole community embarrassed and perhaps corrupted, by idle or corrupt members.

The University has a choice Library of about 3,000 volumes, and a very respectable Philosophical and Chemical Apparatus. — *Genius of Temp.*

La Fayette College, Easton, Pa.

This institution was opened May 9, 1832. It is under the care of Rev. George Junkin, President, three Professors, besides a Business Agent, and a Farmer. Pres. Junkin was formerly the Principal of the Germantown Manual Labor School, which, owing to its proximity to Philadelphia, and other causes, had been discontinued. The course of instruction is similar to that of other Colleges.

The present number of students is sixtyseven, and they are from thirteen States. They labor three or four hours in a day, or twenty hours in a week, either on a farm or in workshops provided for the purpose. During the last season, they have paid, with their labor, *three eighths* of all their expenses, although their average age was only sixteen, and this, too, without any interference with their studies. In fact, it appears from the First Annual Report of the Trustees, with which we have been favored by the President, and to which we are indebted for these facts — that, in almost every instance, progress in study has been in direct proportion to the amount of labor performed. The health of the students is excellent. It should, however, be understood, that many of them came from the Germantown Seminary to this place, and were, of course, already accustomed to labor, in connection with study. We have only room to add the following fact, to show what manual labor students can perform.

The President and the students, between March 14, 1832, and May 9, performed the whole labor of erecting a building thirtyone feet square and two stories high, with garret rooms finished, and the basement for workshops, and dividing it into eight lodging rooms, two school-rooms, and the shop, with the exception of the masonry and plastering, and eight days' work in the quarry.

Education in Georgia.

In Dec. 1831, a Teachers' Society and Board of Education for the State of Georgia was formed; and the process of improvement has never been more rapid in that State, than since that period. The following facts are chiefly derived from the Family Lyceum, and the Charleston Observer.

The College at Athens is unusually flourishing. Several academies and high schools of the very first respectability have come to our knowledge. A seminary in Savannah, under the charge of three gentlemen of great intelligence and skill in teaching, numbers nearly 200 pupils. A female seminary at Milledgeville, under the charge of Dr Brown, has over 100. One of the most flourishing in the State, or in the Union, is at Mount Zion, in Hancock County, under the care of Rev. Mr Beman. — Thomas B. Slade of Clinton, has a flourishing seminary. Rev. Sereno Taylor is endeavoring to get a female acadamy or seminary into operation. Several other schools, in Georgia, within our knowledge, are thought by many to be in a most flourishing condition. Most of these seminaries are well supplied with apparatus, periodicals, &c.

We rejoice to learn that the public sentiment in that State is ripe for the introduction of manual labor schools, of which two have been already formed. One of these was opened in June last, in Camden County, about thirty miles from St Mary's, by Mr A. Steele, who had been for many years a successful instructor at the latter place. In a short time after commencing, Mr S. had two or three times as many applicants as he could accommodate. He has in his school ten young men, twenty years of age and over, several of whom have commenced a three years' course, wholly upon the self-supporting plan. Several very wealthy and respectable citizens have made application in behalf of their sons, with the special object of having them work. And even some young ladies of respectable families have made application to take a part in the domestic employments, under Mrs Steele.

The other manual labor school, near Athens, was established by the Presbyterian Education Society of that State, Jan. 14th, 1832, and is under the care of Mr B. B. Hopkins, formerly an officer of Franklin College.

The object is to prepare young men for usefulness, or to fit them, if desired, for college, and ultimately for the ministry. We understand from the Charleston Observer, that Mr H. will reside in the house with his pupils, who will be at all times under his care and subject to his control. The boarding-house will be under the superintendence of a lady, whose maternal care and aid will be of the highest importance to the institution. Every student is required to labor on the farm three hours a day for five days of each week. This labor is intended to defray a part of the expenses of boarding; and ultimately the whole. Provision is also to be made for such young men as wish to defray the whole expense of their education by labor. The grand object, however, which the friends of the school have in view, (and which should always be the leading object) is to secure health and morals; but they expect also that every student may labor three or four hours a day, and yet pursue his studies to better advantage than if no labor had been performed; and if there is any reliance to be placed on human experience they will not be disappointed.

These and similar institutions will do much, we are confident, to remove the impression that white people cannot labor in the Southern States, — than which we are convinced, both from observation and reasoning, a more glaring error never existed.

Address of the New England Asylums for the Blind.

We have received a very interesting address of this Asylum, embracing an account of the methods of instruction adopted in Europe, and of some important improvements by Dr Howe. The method of printing for the blind, devised by him, is far more simple and less expensive than the European, for extensive works; and the maps in relief which he has formed, are far superior, both in neatness and utility, to those employed in the schools of Paris and Edinburgh. Specimens both of the printing and maps accompany the report, and we are gratified to learn that Dr Howe proposes to publish a map of New England in relief, for common schools. The asylum is now open for the reception of pupils, at 140, Pleasant St. and may be visited on Thursday afternoon of each week by a permit from one of the Trustees, or the Superintendent. It is highly interesting to see the ingenious mode devised for aiding in the instruction of these unfortunate persons, and to witness the rapid progress they have made in reading, arithmetic, and geography, during a short period of instruction.

A similar institution has been established in New York, and another is proposed in Philadelphia.

Associations of Young Men.

We are gratified to see associations of young men forming in various places for mental and moral improvement. We have formerly given a very full account of the New York Association. Since that period we perceive that one has been formed in Richmond, Va. which has established a Library, Reading-room, Publication office, and Lecture Room, in which lectures are delivered and discussions held.

A similar institution has been formed in Boston. Some of the regulations are as follows.

The Library and Reading-room are open every evening, except Sunday and Monday, from seven till ten o'clock in the summer, and from six to ten in the winter; they are also open during the whole of the afternoon of Saturday. Every subscriber who has young friends, — strangers in the city — has the privilege of introducing three of them for three weeks; and strangers in the city, generally, who desire it, may enjoy the same privilege, for a term not exceeding three weeks, by applying to the Librarian.

Instruction in Switzerland.

The government of Zurich have formed a Normal institution for educating teachers, under the denomination of "*The Institute for Regents*," or superintendents of seminaries. It was opened in the beginning of May, at Küssnacht. The ruling powers at Berne have also turned their attention to an improvement in the system of elementary instruction, and, with this view, have directed a collection of popular songs and ballads to be formed. They intend to call upon medical practitioners to impart such knowledge in physic to the lower orders, as may be readily comprehended, and rendered available to the common purposes of life.

Berne. — In the more elevated parts of this canton, the dwellings of the peasantry lie so widely apart, as greatly to interfere with the attendance of their children at school. This, however, is not so severe a loss as would appear at first sight; for all that the children would acquire, would be mere mechanical reading, and getting uninstructive lessons by heart. Judging of the quality of the education by the allowance made to the masters, it cannot well be otherwise; indeed, it has been justly observed by a native writer, "the masters, on the whole, are worse paid than the shepherd and goatherd; for their average pay ranges between two and five louis d'or a year."

Neufchatel. — The king of Prussia has assigned an annual sum of 9000 dollars (1400*l.*) towards improving, as well as diffusing national education in this principality. The rescript, which announces this grant, is drawn up in a spirit, which evinces the royal benefactor to be an enlightened, as well as a generous prince.

Geneva. — It is intended to appoint an inspector-general of the cantonal seminaries, and to assign the duties of the office to some ecclesiastic, who is experienced in the science of education. The boards for superintending the schools at Vilette and Pressy have made a very favorable report of their progress during the year 1831, and it redounds greatly to the credit of those, who are entrusted with the management of them, that the whole expense of medicines for both institutions should not have exceeded the sum of *nine shillings!* The total expense of the two schools has been 23,406*l.* 10*s.* — *London Quarterly Journal of Education.*

A plan is now proposed for the establishment of a Federal University in Switzerland. Six of the largest cantons have offered to aid in this plan. Berne and Zurich contend for the honor of its location.

Universities in Spain.

A twelvemonth has now elapsed since the Spanish Universities were closed, and it is generally believed, that they will continue shut during the present year. (18th April, 1832.)

Two years ago the number of the students in the fifteen Spanish universities was 9900; but more than one half of them were resident in the four oldest of those universities: namely in *Valencia*, 1550; in *Valladolid*, 1240; *Saragoza*, 1165; and in *Santiago* 1050. At that time the 163 colleges and high-schools educated about 3800 youths; and the number of civic and elementary schools exceeded 19,000. — *London Quarterly Journal of Education.*

Education in Scotland.

In the Highlands and Islands of Scotland, there are between 80,000 and 90,000 persons over six years of age, who are unable to read in any language.

NOTICES.

A Compendium of Astronomy, Intended to simplify and illustrate the principles of the Science, and give a Concise View of the Motions and Aspects of the Great Heavenly Luminaries. Adapted to the use of Common Schools, as well as higher Seminaries. By JOHN VOSE, A. M., Late Principal of Pembroke Academy, N. H.; and Author of a larger work on Astronomy. "Creation, of Archangels is the theme."—DR YOUNG. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832. 12mo. pp. 180.

The title of this work is sufficiently descriptive of its objects and general character. It appears to have been prepared with care, and to deserve confidence for its accuracy. Some of its illustrations are novel as well as interesting, for an elementary book, and the cuts are well chosen. We regret that they are not inserted in the body of the work. The spirit of the writer is excellent; and we rejoice to see that our elementary books of natural science have begun to recognise the Great First Cause, as well as the immediate and second causes of the wonders they describe. We think this book is well adapted to high schools. We do not however find that simplicity which the author claims, nor do we think it is suited to common schools, or to younger pupils.

On Teaching Penmanship, addressed to Parents, School Committees and Teachers. By WM. A. ALCOTT, Author of an Essay on the Construction of School-houses. Boston: Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden, 8vo. pp. 24.

This pamphlet contains many valuable and some novel views on the general mode of teaching Penmanship. It has also a merit not so common as it should be in books on education, of being almost exclusively practical. So far as our opinion may aid its circulation, we need only say that we should be glad to transfer a large part of it to our own pages, if our limits would permit.

Easy Lessons for Learning French, selected from Approved Authors. Boston: Allen & Ticknor. 18mo. pp. 101.

We believe there is no better mode of rendering the study of a language easy, than by means of interesting narratives in a simple style, which will pay the young learner for his trouble as he goes on. This work appears to us better adapted to this object, with very young pupils, than any we have seen.

First Steps to the Study of History, being Part First of a Key to History. By ELIZABETH P. PEABODY. Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co.

The object of this work is to aid pupils in obtaining a knowledge of history, by a series of questions, on original works, arranged in chronological order. It is designed to form a kind of harmony of the most valuable historians of a particular country and period, embracing the points most important to the learner, and thus to provide a substitute for the meagre abridgements, which rarely give any distinct ideas of the events which they notice. We are pleased with the general plan for those whose circumstances permit of an extended course of history; and we question whether a thorough course of this kind, would not be far more useful in our female schools, than the superficial glance at a multitude of sciences which has been too often attempted. This work will also be valuable as an aid in reviewing the subject, for those who are already acquainted with it, as well as a guide to the tyro.

A Manual for Teachers of Common Schools. Being an Abstract of a Course of Lectures on School Teaching. By E. DAVIS, A. M., Principal

of Westfield Academy. Brookfield; E. Merriam & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 98.

This appears to be an abstract of a course of *ten* lectures, on the duties of teachers, and on improved methods of instruction. The ninth lecture comprises fifteen pages of good *resolutions*, drawn up by an eminent teacher for his own use. They constitute in our view the most valuable part of the work. For though it contains nothing which is useless, it certainly is far from having much originality to recommend it. It *professes*, however, to be a *compilation*, and is principally made up of quotations from newspapers, periodicals, &c. Lecture IV. has something more in its favor; it is original.

Were not Hall's Lectures on School Keeping within the reach and means of every teacher — although Mr Davis thinks otherwise — we could cheerfully recommend this to their notice, as containing much that is valuable, in simple, chaste, and appropriate language.

Barnum's Elementary Books.

The Child's First, Second and Third Book, of Spelling and Reading, connected with Writing, Numeration, Mensuration, and the use of Maps. Being an Easy Introduction to Geography and Arithmetic.—The First Book of Geography, connected with Spelling, Reading and Writing, for Schools and Families. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co.

This is a series of Elementary Books written by Mr H. L. Barnum. The First Book is a collection of pictures and words, with the objectionable plan of presenting them thus early in capital letters. It differs from older books of the kind chiefly in connecting the lessons by means of conversation. The Second Book connects writing with spelling; a plan which is quite useful, and which would be more so in our opinion, if the *words* which are spelt should be written, in place of unmeaning *marks* and *syllables*. The Third Book introduces words to be written, and combines Arithmetic and Geography very simply and naturally with the series of lessons. The Fourth Book in connection with the third, is one of the best introductions to Geography we have seen; and revives the valuable method of examination, which is old, indeed, but too much neglected, of using blank maps.

The plan of this series of works is in some points novel and interesting; and we think the two last contain decided improvements. But we think the author often mistakes trifling for simplicity; and on the other hand, not unfrequently presents expressions in the mouths of children as unnatural as the pompous speeches in some books of history. There is also a negligence of language in some cases, which is not admissible in a child's book. We can find no apology for this fault in another, (even more serious in our opinion) which the author avows, when he states in the preface to his Third Book, that a work designed to give children their first impressions "was written as fast as the compositors could set it up!" We hope that such parts as are thus neglected, may not only be *revised*, but *re-written;* and we trust that with such attention, these works will aid in improving the methods of elementary instruction.

The Mother's Magazine.

A new periodical has been commenced under this title at Utica, N. Y., each number to consist of eighteen pages, at $1 a year. It is to be edited by Mrs A. G. Whittlesey of that place, and contributions are promised by many individuals of high respectability. We shall rejoice to see a periodical embracing the wide range of topics proposed, well executed, and brought home to the mothers of our country, the educators of its future citizens and rulers.

Correction. We were so much interested in the "*Letters* to a Young Student," that we did not observe that the *preface* is merely designed as recommendatory, and that Pres. Lord is not the author.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

MARCH, 1833.

Art. I. — On the Utility of Visible Illustrations.

A Lecture prepared for the American Institute of Instruction,

By Walter R. Johnson.

The advantage of instruction of that kind which modern methods impart, above that which prevailed when learning dwelt chiefly in the closet and the cloister, is, that it substitutes the assurance of demonstration for the blind assent of the will, to abstract propositions. But this is not the only superiority of the modern plan of conveying information. It likewise gives to those demonstrations, the vivid form of *sensible illustrations*, either simultaneously with the demonstration itself, or even *previously* to the statement of any *general principles* concerning the subject.

The employment of our various means of demonstration involves, in general, an appeal to the sense of sight. The *eye of the auditor* is consequently a chief coadjutor in the labor of instruction. It is *that* through which we are enabled to reach every intellect. It is the medium which conveys delight to the soul, while it fixes the conviction of truth on the understanding. It is the instrument with which the mind not only grasps and takes up, but also holds fast, while she rivets together into a consistent whole, the separate links in her longest chains of reasoning. And though from the nature of our subjects, or from the limited means of procuring the instruments for this kind of illustrations, we may be compelled to forego some part of the advantages which they might

procure, yet it is doubtless to be accounted as among the auspicious circumstances of the age, that truth now so frequently presents herself to the student under the attractive guise of visible demonstration, and actual experiment.

This is believed to be truly placed among those improvements in the theory and practice of instruction which are founded on *principle*, and not on the mere detail of individual practice. It has for its basis, the well known mutual influence of the senses and the understanding upon each other. Like other principles of instruction, it requires that due regard should be paid to the circumstances of particular *cases*, as well as to the general characteristics of our race; but this requisition does not in the slightest degree impair the validity of its claim to be considered as an improvement on the ancient methods of communicating knowledge.

The truths of many sciences would never reach the minds of a majority of mankind except by their connection with sensible illustration. Hence it may happen that he who devises and applies a new illustration of a difficult subject, though he may not claim to be ranked with *discoverers*, may justly demand the foremost honor among *inventors*. Knowledge—that food of the mind—that solace of the soul — is thus brought within the reach of multitudes. *New blades of grass* are made to spring in the once desert places of the intellect. The benefactor of his race is no longer content with multiplying only the physical, the animal gratifications of his fellow beings. He seeks a higher reward; he aspires to a nobler distinction. He would awaken the curiosity; he would stimulate the ingenuity; he would allure the senses from their baneful connection with vice and folly, and fix them on objects worthy of their regard, and worthy alike of the interest and efforts of the mind.

It can scarcely be thought necessary, in the present state of *intellectual philosophy*, that an elaborate dissertation should be presented to those whose daily duties lead them to contemplate the phenomena of mind, to prove the vast importance of *clear conceptions* respecting the *elements* of knowledge.

That without such conceptions all the subsequent stages of progress must be involved in more or less uncertainty, appears plainly inevitable; and that this defect in early culture will extend to the practical character of the individual, is a consequence too obvious to require proof. Severe struggles and long continued efforts may in part remove the difficulties superinduced by early mismanagement; by habits of loose and vague conjecture; by substituting the empty imaginings of an unfurnished mind, for the solid fruits of active inquiry. But these endeavors, it is notorious, are seldom made; and when made, they not unfrequently prove wholly unsuccessful.

The clearness of conception now referred to, is entirely distinct from that mere promptitude with which the memory may collect, and the tongue may utter, the written precepts, the didactic formulas, of any science. Though accurate in themselves, *these* often fail to convey any correspondent accuracy to the youthful mind. A great volubility of tongue in repeating what has been dogmatically laid down by the *book* or the *professor*, is often attended by an utter heedlessness in regard to the true purport of what is repeated. And as to the mutual relations between the parts of a complicated or abstract science, especially when left to be *inferred* by the student, they are entirely disregarded. It is, apparently, thought sufficient that the limit assigned for his exercise has been reached; that the *whole lesson* has been repeated with scrupulous fidelity in regard to words, and that he comprehends the separate truths embraced within its range. But he does not in fact *comprehend;* he only admits with a passive acquiescence some vague general propositions.

With little to rouse the attention, less to excite the curiosity, and nothing, perhaps, intrinsic to the study itself, which could stimulate *voluntary exertion*, it is not remarkable, that his mind should become the mere receptacle of intellectual lumber—not one article of which he could rightfully call his own.

Facts and opinions thus stored, without ever being *appropriated*, become the readiest material for dogmatism and pedantry, and are accordingly dealt out with a lavish hand, when occasion requires a display of learning. The proverbial deficiency in the practical duties of life, of young persons thus instructed, must be decisive against persevering in a course as hostile to sound learning as it is to pleasure and to usefulness.

The preceding remarks may lead us directly to a consideration of one among the various means by which precision and permanency of knowledge may be substituted for the superficial and fleeting impressions too often resulting from the ordinary methods of instruction. This means we shall attempt to show is a judicious and legitimate employment of visible illustrations to convey the truths of science, or fix the remembrance of literary subjects on the youthful mind.

In presenting this subject, it will be first in order to show that visible illustrations do in fact convey accurate conceptions and permanent knowledge.

The illustration and confirmation of this point by reference to certain departments of knowledge will next be attempted.

The time and manner of employing this instrument of instruction will then claim attention.

We may subsequently pass to the limitation of its usefulness by

the nature of certain subjects; and finally, indicate divers abuses and impositions to which the unguarded may be liable, from a too hasty adoption of some specious views of this matter.

Whether we consider *vision* in its connection with the anatomy and physiology of the human frame; with the subtile material *substance*, or the not less curious *vibratory action* of its supposed cause; with the wonderful developments in regard to that cause which recent investigations have produced; with the infinity of wonders in other branches of science and art, with which the modern improvements in optics have made us acquainted; with the refinement of taste and the gratification of fancy, to which the power of sight was long ago proved to minister more than any other of the five senses; or, above all, with the commencement, extension, and confirmation of our *knowledge* respecting the universe around us, and all that it contains; we shall, in each of these points of contemplation, behold a subject, than which philosophy presents none more curious, — nature, none more truly delightful. It is to the last mentioned view of this matter, however, that our present inquiries relate.

It has been said that the *senses* require restraint rather than excitement; that we are but too prone to indulge their gratification instead of allowing them to slumber in unwarrantable apathy. To those senses which minister to the more brutal passions, this observation is in a degree applicable. The unseasonable and the excessive developement of the grosser appetites is doubtless an evil to be deplored by every friend of morals and of social order. But it is chiefly to abuses of even these senses that the objection in question is to be applied. To make the thoughtless pursuit of pleasure take the place of mental culture and moral improvement, is no less culpable in youth, than it is despicable in age. But to cultivate any and all of the senses for the legitimate purpose of extending and beautifying the dominions of the intellect, is in every stage of human advancement most worthy of regard and commendation. And if it can be shown, that by employing the aid of sensible illustrations, a deeper mine of mental wealth can eventually be opened up to the researches of man, or a wider diffusion given to the treasures already amassed, who shall hesitate in the adoption of means by which so desirable a consummation may be effected?

But the illustration of truth, especially of a physical and (when practicable) of an abstract kind, by means of visible representation, is not defensible merely on the ground that the exercise is in this case more innocent and rational than in that of the other senses — not on the plea that our sight is more *perfect* than any other sense, or that it is the source of the chief pleasures of our imagination — not that the grand, the novel, and the beautiful are principally revealed

to this sense, and received through its instrumentality — nor yet because the highest rational felicity, — that of a refined taste — is derived from the varied and pleasurable exercise of the sense of sight. All these are grounds of grateful acknowledgment for the high privileges of our nature, and tend to excite the liveliest admiration. But in connection with the improvement of mind, the exercise of the eye claims pre-eminence among the available means of gaining and establishing all our real knowledge.

"*Ad aures tardius res adveniunt quam ad visum.*"

And let it not be objected, that the eye is *sometimes* deceived; that the records of testimony show how uncertain a reliance is to be placed on the perceptions coming through this organ. Let us rather remember how unhesitatingly the greater part of mankind depend on their *own eyes*, for the highest assurance, and in the most momentous of human affairs — how entirely common sense has taught them to regard this *particular sense* as the very touchstone of all true conviction.

Let us reflect that men in general, unsophisticated by any subtleties of an over-strained logic, are no more inclined to distrust their eyes, because they have sometimes met with such a thing as an ocular deception, than to reject the evidence of taste or smell, because these senses, when diseased, give indications different from those which they afford when in health. Let it be granted, that the perceptions of sight often require to be verified by the concurrent testimony of other senses, and that the faculties purely intellectual do, in some few cases, command for their deductions a degree of certitude, seldom accorded even to the combined evidence of the senses; yet these facts cannot shake our trust in the direct and positive evidence afforded by the sense of sight. It gives us assurance of the presence of objects, so positive that we seldom *seek* a higher degree of conviction for the understanding.

It is true, that the sense of touch is, especially in childhood, the corroborative proof to which nature, for wise and useful purposes, early teaches the infant to resort; but the matured faculties apprize us that it is rather a *childish* propensity to wish everything that comes within our reach, submitted to this kind of examination.

Again, it is well known that there are branches of science the most sublime and difficult, about which all our knowledge is ultimately referable to sight alone. Still we rest upon the deductions made by long trains of reasoning in these sciences with as much confidence as on those purely mathematical demonstrations, in which we have an intuitive perception of truth at every step. I need not apprize you, that the science of physical astronomy stands foremost, among those which appeal to this single sense for their discoveries. We have never yet *touched* the stars.

To understand the importance of making the right use of the senses, and particularly of sight, subservient to the developement and cultivation of mind, we need only recur to the erroneous impressions often made on the mind through a neglect to employ suitable illustrations to explain our language to children. These false impressions become the sources of numberless misfortunes, — and ridiculous, or worse than ridiculous prejudices are often among the least of their evil consequences. An erroneous association of ideas with the terms which they are taught to employ, is found extremely difficult to eradicate; or if mature reason does ever succeed in separating the false from the true, yet as a mere conviction of the understanding is a less operative principle than an early habit of the mind, the false notion may still adhere to the words with which it has become associated, and every time the word occurs, a separate effort of the will may be demanded to bring the truth into contact with its proper term. It is related by a credible author* that a certain gentleman, who in his childhood was reading to his pious mother something about the *patriarchs*, stumbled in his pronunciation, and called the word *partridges*. The good lady of course set him right in his *pronunciation*, but not in his conception of the *meaning;* for, as often happens in such cases, she took no pains to explain either of the terms. Hence, the next time he encountered the word *patriarch*, he again called for assistance, saying, "here, mamma, here are these *queer fowls* again;" and to the latest day of his life, he averred that he could not but link the idea of a bird, as the first involuntary suggestion, to the word *patriarch*, which had thus puzzled his infantile mind. Probably most persons may find something analogous to this, in regard to their early conceptions of *words* and *things*, especially when the former came before them for the first time, unaccompanied by the latter.

We may next proceed to an exemplification of the usefulness of this instrument in the acquisition and retention of scientific truth; but will previously make a few remarks, which will be found generally applicable to them.

In almost every subject, capable of being presented to the eye, there are several distinct species of illustration, each containing approximate developements of the truth which we wish to make known. These are severally resorted to as occasion requires, or as opportunity allows. But since they may convey each its different degree of force and clearness, it should be our aim, as far as practicable, to adopt that which produces the *highest* assurance, and in fact comes the nearest to an *actual exhibition* of the matter to be demonstrated.

* Mrs Hamilton.

In all species of illustrations the least general truth should first be presented to the eye of the student, and those modes of demonstration which partake of the nature of abstractions, reserved for a more advanced stage of his progress. This is only following out the principle of induction; or perhaps we ought to say, it is the first and best period for the application of that important method of intellectual improvement.

In some cases we are wholly incapable of giving a visible representation of a subject directly, but may have recourse to some of its analogies, and thence obtain a parallel relation to things capable of being presented to the eye. Thus, we cannot exhibit directly to the senses, the manner in which a charge of electricity is distributed over the surface of a prime conductor; but by the intervention of *motion* produced in the index of a torsion balance by a small insulated metallic plane applied successively to the different parts of the conductor, and at each trial presented to the index, the mode of the distribution becomes apparent, according to the effect observed at each application of the plane to the balance.

With regard to subjects capable of being *illustrated* by an appeal to the eye through certain representations, many are likewise susceptible of a complete exhibition to the same sense, with all the details which science would make known. In these departments of knowledge, the most satisfactory illustration is doubtless to be found in the exhibition of the thing itself which we would explain. Yet, owing to the complication of parts and the intricate or concealed structure of an object, it may happen that more clearness will be given by well executed drawings, than even by the immediate inspection of an object of this description.

Among the foremost subjects for visible illustration must be reckoned the branches of natural history, and the physical sciences in their most extended sense. These may in general be illustrated in one or other of the following methods.

1. By the actual presence of the things to be made known, — with all their natural circumstances.

2. By the presence of the same in an imperfect state, or in detached portions.

3. Artificial models, having none of the actual parts or elements of the original objects, may be substituted for the latter.

4. Graphic representations, combining the advantages of lights, shades and perspective.

5. Outline figures, or mere diagrams, in which the imagination of the beholder is required to supply all except the general feature of the object delineated.

6. The relations of objects, in regard to magnitude, number, proportion, and efficiency, may he exhibited to the eye by mere

symbols, conveying only a concise expression of the verbal propositions which may be enunciated respecting them.

Among the departments of Natural History, that of Botany may be illustrated either by an actual resort to the fields and forests, where the natural habits of every vegetable production are seen unimpaired by any efforts of art; or by repairing to the garden, greenhouse, or nursery, where man has in part divested the plant of its native wildness. In the former, and in all analogous cases, we can hardly be said to study nature by the *help of illustrations*. We rather contemplate, at *original sources*, the truths inherent in her plan, as they stand unveiled to the intuitive apprehension of the mind.

Again, we may pursue this science by consulting the preserved specimens of an herbarium, duly labelled and scientifically arranged. Here, as well as in the garden or the green-house, we have an *actual presence* of the things to be made known, but divested of several circumstances in their original condition. Thus also the different kinds of timber are sometimes formed into boxes in the shape of books, containing samples of the bark, leaves, flowers, fruits, roots, and seeds. The insects which inhabit or infest each, are sometimes added.

In the next place, we may construct artificial, but accurate models of some races in the vegetable kingdom, of which actual specimens cannot be easily preserved. Thus the cryptogamous class has been successfully imitated in wax; and the trade of making artificial plants and flowers, so fruitful in unnatural creations, so prone to content itself with pretty monsters, might be turned to good account, were a little science added to the skill which now ministers chiefly to a depraved and frivolous taste.

If neither of the above means present themselves, we may examine the colored figures which exhibit an intelligible picture of the original plant, with the parts constituting the distinctive characteristics of the class, order, genus and species, separately and conspicuously displayed; and finally, we may gain no inconsiderable benefit from carefully inspecting the mere outlines, without shading or coloring. When colored figures are employed, the nature of the locality in which the plant generally flourishes, may easily be added, and may aid the student in forming a vivid conception of its character and habits.

The study of animated nature may be pursued by the aid of illustrations equally various. To visit the haunts, and observe minutely the characteristics of each species is, however, a pleasure destined to be enjoyed by few, even of the enthusiastic cultivators of Natural History. It is only men, who, like Wilson or Audubon, are willing to exchange the pent air of cities for the free circulation of mountains and forests, and the constrained air of fine

gentlemen, for the habits of a Boone or a Leatherstocking, that can expect to become thoroughly intimate with the instincts and dispositions, — the *personal character*, (if we may be allowed the expression,) of those denizens of the forest which form the subject of zoölogy. Nor is a minute acquaintance with the living habits of an animal indispensable to a tolerably clear comprehension of its nature and properties. The mutual relations of the several parts and organs, the precise mode of action, and the degree of dependence of those parts on each other, can hardly be exhibited without some analysis of the specimen; — an analysis which can be made only after the functions of life have ceased. Hence it happens that the second class of illustrations is, when applied to this subject, more advantageous for giving certain kinds of information, than the preceding; and hence the human frame is far better understood from an inspection after death, and the practice of dissection, than it can possibly be by the most minute examination of the living subject. The class of illustrations in zoölogy, to which we now refer, includes the *skeletons*, duly connected so as to exhibit the frame of the animal; the *skin*, prepared and stuffed for exhibiting the exterior appearance when alive; the internal organs *injected* with some colored substance, to display the several blood vessels; and the muscular parts, the viscera, or even the whole bodies of some classes, particularly of reptiles, *preserved in spirits*, and so placed in the containing vessels as to present to the eye the most interesting portions of the specimen. As an example of the striking effect of specimens in comparative anatomy, in aiding the imagination, I may mention an incident which fell under my observation. When a delegation of one of the most savage of our western tribes, a few years since passed through Philadelphia, they were invited to visit the Philadelphia Museum, in which, finding many of their quadruped acquaintance, with various implements of their own warfare, and a vast number of objects before unknown to them, they were naturally much delighted with the celebrated establishment, and expressed, (as far as an Indian ever deigns to express it,) their admiration of the novel spectacle. Divers ejaculations, and some obscure signs of relaxed gravity were occasionally observable during their progress through the rooms, until they came to that part of the hall where the skeleton of the huge mastodon, stood all at once revealed to their bewildered senses. The awe which seemed to come over them now deprived their tongues of utterance, and held their eyes fixed in the direction of the vast, black, bony structure, as if it had been an object of adoration. Such, it was said, their tribe *are* in the habit of regarding the mammoth; and as it had all their lives before been merely a creature of imagination, or seen only in detached portions, its real bulk and proportions had probably never before been adequately conceived.

To illustrate the subject of zoölogy and its kindred branches, when neither living, nor preserved specimens can be obtained, recourse may be had to the third species of demonstration by purely artificial models. A very accurate representation of every part of the human frame is often formed in wax, or other plastic material, and where professional skill is not the object of study, may be quite adequate to convey a competent knowledge of the subject.

The use of colored engravings, in illustrating every department of animated nature, is a practice so general as hardly to require a mention of its usefulness. In the subdivision of ornithology, our own country has produced a full share of splendid performances of this description. Indeed, imitative art has seldom displayed more briliant achievements, than are witnessed in some recent publications in this branch of natural history.

We may also refer to the superb work on fishes now in the course of publication in England, by Mrs Bowdich, as a highly finished performance of this nature, in which every figure in every copy, is a real drawing from the hands of the fair ichthyologist herself.

Linear representations of animals are likewise capable of great spirit and vividness. A few happy strokes of the pencil, will enable the most tardy imagination to fill up the space, and give life to the picture.

Were these remarks addressed exclusively to a body of naturalists, they might seem altogether superfluous, since *they* must be familiar with all the modes of representation above alluded to.

They must likewise be assured that the *insect* tribes, in all their varied, Protean, and *questionable* shapes, are susceptible of numerous kinds of representation; that *shells* may be examined on the sea-shore and the margins of rivers, — or in cabinets, under scientific arrangement; but that the art of the engraver, with that of the painter in water colors, may almost supply the necessity of such recourse. The *fossil remains* of vegetable and animal beings, which constitute so remarkable an ingredient in the exterior crust of our globe must be viewed at *original sources*, — must be seen in their actual position in the deep laid strata — if we would realize the full force of the truths which they silently utter. We must look with our own eyes, upon those relics of countless generations of animated beings, now wholly extinct, which, at various periods, have covered the bosom of the ocean, and, in succession, been overspread by a hundred thick deposites of earthy matter. We must observe how each fresh layer became, by the obviously slow action of untold geological ages, converted into impervious rocks; we must mark the exact lineaments, that stand forth from the solid marble; must note the figures of those sightless eyeballs which glare in millions from out the dark and threatening masses, over

our heads, as we venture down into the chasms and water courses, where these truths, touching the primeval condition and the numerous changes of our globe, are now and then accidentally revealed.

To be a geologist in the best sense of the term, these and many other similar facts must be examined at original sources. But all cannot make pilgrimages to the sanctum sanctorum of nature; and if they could, all would not profit by the journey. The greater number must be content to admire the relics brought thence by her more zealous votaries; and must take upon credit the fact of their being found where *they* have asserted. As to the genuineness of the relics, all may judge for themselves; and each may, if he see fit, make himself, according to his disposition, either merry or wroth with another's *opinions* about *osteological distinctions.*

The second kind of fossil and geological illustrations consists therefore in specimens or fragments of the several strata to be explained, arranged under appropriate classes with the locality attached to each, and with the organic remains designated by names, assigned to them by naturalists. But some species of these curious objects are too rare to be generally found in the most extensive cabinets, and recourse is accordingly had to models or casts in plaister, clay, or other plastic materials, duly colored, to represent some real specimen to which the modeller has access. A small but interesting treatise on American *trilobites,* accompanied by numerous casts of this nature, has recently been published by a gentleman* of Philadelphia, and may illustrate the foregoing remark.

The fourth kind of illustrations, that of shaded and colored figures, for maps and sections of country, appears almost indispensable to every course of instruction in this department. Without them, not only the varieties of mineralogical elements, composing the different beds, would soon become confounded together in the mind of the auditors; but the relative situations of geological series, — the displacement of strata, — the results of recent deposites of matter, over surfaces formerly upheaved, — the different positions of *conformable* and *unconformable* rocks, with numerous other facts and principles in this engaging science — would be nearly unintelligible.

As evidence of the usefulness of engravings to elucidate fossil Geology, we need only refer to the splendid works of M. M. Cuvier, and Brogniart, — monuments at once of their author's talents and industry, and of nature's ancient, inexhaustible variety of organic productions.

What has just been stated respecting Geology may be ap-

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plied with slight variations to the kindred science of mineralogy. 1. Minerals may be examined in their natural localities, or subjected to careful analogies. 2. The whole mineral kingdom may be displayed by well chosen, representative specimens, each of which may speak in turn to the eye of the inquisitive, and declare the character and relations of all within its district. An incidental circumstance (that of crystallization) connected with the study of mineralogy, is capable of being *delineated* in a manner fully intelligible, without the aid of solids. This department of natural history employs less frequently than almost any other, the aid of artificial models and colored engravings; both because the actual specimens are for the most part easily obtained, and because the models and figures would fail to address correctly any other sense than sight; and it is well known that mineralogists depend on the touch, the odor, the hardness and the specific gravity, no less than on the color and crystalline form, in making up their opinion of the composition of a mineral.

If we leave the range of natural history, and ask what dependence other branches of physical science place on the aid of visible demonstration, the chemist will direct us first to the laboratory of the manufacturer; or to that of the philosophical inquirer, surrounded by his instruments of research. He will next invite us to the exhibition of illustrative experiments, accompanied by statements of his own, to enable us to supply in imagination what cannot there be presented. Should he have occasion to describe a process, too long to be completed within his hour, we shall even be content to be shown the model of an apparatus by which it is performed; or he will have put in requisition the talents of a draftsman to multiply the varieties of form, and strengthen our conception of what he cannot actually exhibit. If he have occasion to speak of that which constitutes the pride of modern chemistry — the doctrine of definite proportions, — the matter will not be simply stated in words; we shall have either a linear diagram, a set of variously colored cubes, or a Wollaston's scale of equivalents to render all perfectly clear and truly *definite*. Perhaps, too, he might treat us to an explanation of this celebrated doctrine by means of certain symbols, which, though a little cabalistic at first sight, soon prove to be the most concise and beautiful method, of presenting to the eye a vast amount of facts respecting chemical combinations.

In Natural Philosophy and Mechanics, all the six methods before enumerated find constant application. From the workshop and the manufactory where the *principles* of these sciences are carried out into full practical developement, to the abstract expression of those principles by help of the numerical, algebraic, and fluxional symbols, we have a series of appeals to the eye, by means of which we may

impress on the understanding the great truths of the science or the varied modes of their application. Thus, working models or movable diagrams constitute the second class; solid models or patterns, the third; perspective representations, the fourth; and outlines, the fifth.

We have already referred to the case of astronomy as resting on the basis of observation. We might go into the walks of the fine arts, and witness the various means by which the painter, the sculptor, and the architect endeavor to make known their achievements. Here the two former would be found, appealing solely to the understanding and the taste through the eyes of mankind; and of the latter, so far as building assumes the character of a fine art, and not merely of a useful trade, the same is preeminently true. Even music makes at least one most effectual and useful address to the eye by aid of the symbolic notes, without which many a modern performer would have been lamentably untuneful.

A most valuable application of the principle contended for is found also, in communicating the laws of elocution; the very slides and inflections of the voice have by philosophical masters of this art, been happily depicted by lines and characters, which furnish to the eye something on which it can seize, to arrest and detain the fleeting modulations of sound. This enables us to fix the laws of utterance as regulated by construction, and especially to convey definite ideas of the rising and falling inflections — one of the most difficult duties, perhaps, which the rhetorician has to encounter.

Would time allow, we might further elucidate and exemplify the subject by a reference to geography, history, the manners and customs of nations, the mythologies of ancient, and the superstitions of modern times. But scarcely a book in either of these departments of knowledge is now put forth without some evidence that the principles above advanced have operated upon the minds of their authors; nearly all are accompanied by some sort of visible illustration.

But there will sometimes be found matters of science, which we cannot bring before the eyes of the student. To carry conviction of their truth, or even a conception of their possibility, we must in the absence of actual ocular demonstration, adopt an *analogous* fact, or principle. A case has sometimes been supposed of an inhabitant of the tropics, who should be told that in other climates, water itself, that proverbially fugitive substance, was for a great part of the year in a compact, solid state, capable of being applied to the numerous purposes of impenetrable masses. That in this state, it forms the continuous bridges of mighty rivers — the gemmed splendor of the forest scene — the roofs of cabins for barbarous tribes — the walls of palaces for fanciful monarchs — and a

vast winding-sheet for all the glories of a departed year. How strong, it is said, must be his faith, to give credit to assertions so apparently absurd; and how should we overcome his incredulity? How, but by recalling to his mind some analogous change from the liquid to the solid state, particularly such as might result from a reduction of temperature. Should he ever have seen a saturated solution of any chemical substance, depositing its crystaline masses over the surface of a cooling liquid, his unbelief might be shaken, and the supposed fable of solidified water assume the air of a possible truth. We may however remark, that Natural Philosophy or Chemistry, or both combined, would enable us to put this doubt at rest in any climate; as there is none so hot as t prevent the success of those frigorific experiments, which you need not to be informed, both sciences are capable of exhibiting.

It is believed to be a common practice to delay the exhibition of facts admitting visible illustration, until a late period in youthful education, and to detain the mind from a full and thorough acquaintance with the things about which principles in science have been *enunciated* by the learned, under a belief that the general laws could not thus early be comprehended. Yet we find attempts made to urge upon the youthful, and even upon the *infant* mind those very laws, or others more abstruse, which it is deemed premature to exhibit in actual existence, in the economy and operations of nature.

It is probably found easier for those who *profess* to teach the branches to which we now refer, to discourse with apparent learning about *principles*, than to exhibit, explain, or even understand, how these principles are applied in any given actual illustration. Hence the practical benefit to learners, is sacrificed to the love or the affection in teachers of being profound in abstractions.

In most departments of physical knowledge, the reverse of the course just stated may be very successfully adopted. The *facts*, and the more simple *laws*, of each science, may be early made familiar, by their actual presence before the student, or by the best illustration which we can command, while the mathematical, or other general laws, may be reserved until the habits of abstract reasoning and of generalization, have begun to be formed.

To certain subjects, we readily admit, the mode of illustration now advocated is not applicable. Or if we attempt to make the application, we shall not only fail of rendering the subject more clear, but shall almost certainly obscure or degrade it. Of this kind are those questions which respect immaterial essences, their nature, relations, and mode of existence. The attempt to illustrate ethical and theological subjects by visible representations, is believed to have proved in most cases abortive, or to have utterly

failed of its aim, if we admit that aim to have been the dissemination of truth. The conceptions of an individual mind on subjects of this nature may doubtless be most vividly set before the eye, by visible representations. There was a period in literature, when most of the productions exhibited on the stage were founded on the legends respecting saints, angels and demons; and the actual representation is said to have corresponded admirably with the extravagance of conception, in which their authors indulged.

But the uniform tendency is, to degrade whatever noble attributes are sought to be embodied, and to introduce groveling and unworthy notions of the object of homage. The result is, a constant falling away to some species of idolatry — a substitution of some creature of sense, or at best some physical creation of the brain, for the true object of rational adoration.

Questions of abstract and metaphysical science are seldom capable of being reduced to the form of visible representation; because mind itself, which is the object of such science as well as its faculties, is by nature wholly invisible.

The pencil has sometimes attempted to shadow forth certain states of mind, and particularly of moral feeling, by the representation of human forms in the attitudes and actions which those feelings or states of mind naturally induce. Thus *Melancholy*, with her pensive air — "her eye upraised, as one inspired;" — *Hope*, with her smile of anticipated joy — turned on vacancy; — *Devotion*, in her meek and suppliant attitude; — *Imagination*, with her rolling, frenzied eye; — *Fear*, with her blanched cheek and quivering lip; — *Cruelty*, with her dark frown and stern regard that gloats on blood; — these, and innumerable other personifications of the passions or dispositions of our race have been portrayed on the canvas, or stood forth from beneath the sculptor's chisel. But the misconstruction to which representations of this nature are liable, and which will perhaps forever prevent the success of attempts to generalize the passions, indicates that the imitative art has strayed from its due sphere, and that its labors should be bestowed on real rather than allegorical subjects; on things that address the eye, and not on *things unseen*.

Hence, though the abstract branches of science demand all possible elucidation, we cannot hope to obtain it from sources incompatible with the nature of the truth to be established; and it is worse than useless to attempt to facilitate the reception of definite ideas, by means which must inevitably render them confused.

Now it is precisely this class of subjects which do not submit in any form to the test of inspection, that has given rise to the longest and most unprofitable disputes among mankind. It is the class which for ages has puzzled the ingenuity of the subtle, and to this

day is as near being decided to universal satisfaction, as at the moment when it was first made a matter of dispute.

Besides attempting to apply visible illustration to subjects in which its only effect could be to mislead, there is some danger that persons, who are not entirely conversant with the value of the various means and methods designed for this end, should be cajoled into a belief that everything which bears the name of apparatus, or visible representation, is valuable, for the purpose of instruction.

The spurious articles professing to be designed for illustrating the sciences, may also be urged upon the attention of those who have but little opportunity for examination or inquiry; and they may be induced to lavish valuable pecuniary means on objects utterly worthless.

If the advocates of popular instruction intend to accomplish any thing of importance by demonstrating the truths of science, policy and duty would seem to require that in selecting the means regard should be had to their intrinsic value and efficacy. The cause we advocate may therefore be in some instances retarded, or actually obstructed, by the very implements of which the professed object is to advance it.

In a zeal for copiousness of illustration, it is to be regretted that implements and methods of elucidation are sometimes adopted, which, far from being the best that might be found, are but little, if at all, superior to verbal explanations. The cause of knowledge is actually retarded by frivolous and futile attempts to give, by any visible means, an *appearance* of exactness and demonstration to a subject which is confessedly level to all capacities, without any other explanation than a simple statement in plain and familiar language.

Art. II. — On the Appropriate Use of the Bible in Common Education.

An Essay prepared for the American Lyceum,

By Thomas Smith Grimke.

Every question, which respects influences, that act on the community at large, is of immense consequence in our age, and especially in our country. We readily comprehend, that, in Europe, such matters would be viewed with jealousy and apprehension by government, and indeed by all in Church and State, who are attached by interest, prejudice and fear to existing forms and institutions. But in our country, where religious bigotry and super-

stition, political tyranny and persecution are unknown; where the people *are*, and *own*, and *do* everything, the progress of society is among the greatest of popular interests, among the highest of popular duties. The advancement of society in religion, — pure, humble, enlightened; in knowledge — practical, useful, benevolent; is then an obligation laid upon every man by the constitution of our state of society; and above all, on those whom God has endued with talents, has blessed with opportunities for their cultivation, and has honored with the authority of public stations, or the influence of private example. To be insensible to these truths, is not to realize that every man, however elevated or lowly, is one of the people, and that he has duties to perform to all the rest — duties commensurate with his capacity and means. To educate the people then, is the great duty which is laid upon every one; for it is the most powerful and durable of all the instruments which can be employed to carry forward the advancement of society in virtue and knowledge, as the fountains of prosperity and happiness.

Education being then of such vast importance, it must be obvious that, as common education is all that the great majority ever attain, it cannot too deeply interest us. Nor is it less manifest that, of all seminaries of instruction, COMMON SCHOOLS surpass all others, in actual value, both present and prospective. So far indeed do I regard them as excelling all others, in the necessity for their existence and the momentous character of their influence, that were the alternative presented of a complete, universal system of common schools, without Universities, Colleges, and scientific and literary Academies, or the reverse, these without those, I should not hesitate a single moment to choose those, and lose all of these. And I should do it, not only on the ground that those were incomparably more valuable to the PEOPLE, but on the farther ground, that the school system would produce the College system more rapidly, extensively and effectually, than this could produce that. The College system has been at work for centuries, and has never yet produced the school system, either in Europe or America. The most remarkable illustration of the school system, furnished by modern countries, (for who on such a question would wander into antiquity) is to be found in New England; and there the *School* system is the *basis* of all their institutions, civil and political, literary and religious. Their school system has made them the freest, happiest and most enlightened *community* that ever existed. Their Colleges have not, and never could have, accomplished it alone.

I regard the school system then, as an object of primary importance in our country; and proceed to consider how the Bible can be most appropriately used as a part of the system. The mode of stating the subject concedes that the Bible is to be adopted into

the general scheme, as an important branch of it. Whilst the value of the instrument is admitted, the most skilful and effectual mode of employing it is suggested as a matter of doubt, and important inquiry. I shall endeavor to remove the doubt, and satisfy the inquiry.

If the same question respected any other text book employed in a course of instruction, "How can it be most appropriately used?" is it not obvious that the answer is to be found in the relation which the book itself bears to the improvement of mankind, in knowledge and virtue? Now, no other book stands in so many and so important connections, with the advancement both of the individual and of society. It relates to man both in time and eternity, in public and private life, in every station of duty and usefulness, amidst all the changes and chances of happiness and misery, of prosperity and adversity. It applies to him universally, whether we consider the enlightenment of his conscience, or the improvement of his understanding, the cultivation of his affections, or the formation of his character. Shall we not then employ it, as we employ other valuable works for the instruction of the young? Assuredly this must be the right course.

First. — Let us then bring the Bible to bear upon the *memory*. I regard the scriptures, if I may use the expression, as THE GRAMMAR OF ALL EDUCATION. It is to the duties, business, and pleasures of life, what a grammar is to the acquisition and use of a language. A thorough and minute acquaintance with its grammar is indispensable to rapid and efficient progress: and the first step is to treasure up in the memory its peculiar and important elements. The same is equally true of the Bible. Regarding it as the only safe and genuine text book of duty and usefulness, I hold it to be clear that it ought to be a daily exercise in common schools to commit some portions of it to memory. The simplicity and peculiarity of the style, aided by the division into chapters and verses, render it decidedly easier than to commit any other species of prose. If a familiar acquaintance with, and ready recollection of the elements of his text books be valuable to the statesman and lawyer, the physician and scholar, must not the same be equally true of the Christian, and indeed still more so, as he has at stake interests so much more important? To illustrate; who has ever had occasion to speak about the Constitution of the United States, or to hear it spoken of, without being sensible how great would have been the acquisition to have known it by heart? I regard the Gospel of John as the Constitution of the Christian Church, and would therefore have it committed to memory entire; and how easily and speedily this could be done, is apparent from the fact, that the 879 verses at the rate of only ten verses per day,

would occupy 88 days; but allowing one day of every week for reviewing, and four days for regular lessons, the whole could be accomplished in twenty two weeks. In like manner, the whole of the four gospels, containing 3781 verses, would be accomplished in less than two years, allowing fifteen verses as the average lesson, throughout the whole period, taking four days to each week and thirtynine study weeks, or 156 study days to each year, thus excluding one day for reviewing, one for holiday, and one as the Sabbath, and laying aside thirteen weeks for vacation. Add a half year more, and in two years and six months, the Gospels, and Acts of the Apostles would be acquired.

It is not too much to say, that such an acquisition to the memory would be of inestimable value. I take for granted, of course, that a large portion of it would not be permanently retained, but the most important and interesting passages would be preserved entire; such as the sermon on the mount, the conversation with Nicodemus, the resurrection of Lazarus, the prodigal son, the good Samaritan, &c, &c. Can any Christian possibly doubt the value of such an acquisition, under all the possible circumstances of life? I feel assured that every sensible man, though not a professing Christian, will not question it, if he is impartial and candid enough to admire the beauty of holiness, the dignity of a religious life, and the usefulness of Christian virtues.

Second. — Having thus stored the memory, and even during the same period of time, we may employ the scriptures advantageously in their *first* great relation to man, viz. as a means for the *cultivation of the affections.* These are among the safeguards of duty, and among the incentives to usefulness. To cherish, develope, refine and strengthen them, on the Christian model, is surely the dictate of Christian love, duty, and wisdom. And how can this best be accomplished? It seems to me, by illustrating all the affections by familiar anecdotes taken from the lives of Christians, children and youth, men and women. We have text books of Chemistry, Geometry, Logic, and Mathematics, and why should we not have a "Scripture Text book of the Affections," full of such illustrations? The man who should prepare such a work, in simple, plain language, for the use of common schools, would be a Christian benefactor of his country, and would himself exemplify in such a deed, the great Christian law of love. Let us take, in order to illustrate the value of such a collection, the single text, "love your enemies." Who is not sensible of the importance of counteracting steadily and carefully the opposite tendency, so deeply seated in our nature, and unhappily fostered and strengthened by such a vast amount of influence in every community? Who does not see, that where so little is to be found in favor of the

maxim in the individual, social, or national conduct, the young mind should be preoccupied, and the memory filled with remarkable and affecting instances of love to enemies, not taken from the lives of the great, but from the walks of common life? Will any one doubt the influence of these over the youthful mind; and that many and many a man thus guarded and fashioned, would be self-admonished, and saved in time of temptation? Let us go in like manner through the whole circle of the affections, and we shall be satisfied that a series of such practical illustrations would be of inestimable value in purifying, elevating, refining and strengthening the affections. In such a work I would not insert anything, as most compilers of school books are fond of doing, from the pagan records of Greece and Rome. This I should do, not because I cannot admire such instances in the history of Athens and Rome; but because I would illustrate the Gospels only out of the lives of Christians; believing as I do, that a sure way to degrade Christian morals, and to induce a vague, practical belief that they are not much better than pagan morals, is to intermix the experimental influence of heathens, in this seductive form, with that of Christians. I have no doubt that this is one of the numerous and powerful causes, that render the formation of Christian character so difficult.

THIRD. — The *second* great relation, in which the scriptures stand to men, is *the enlightenment of the conscience*. The purity, strength and beauty of the affections, when christianized, undoubtedly impart to the character a refinement and loveliness, unknown to any other system. And so, when the sense of duty is christianized, and all the principles of conduct are referred to the Christian standard, the energy, dignity and consistency of the character are of the highest order. Who then can hesitate in acknowledging the scriptures as the richest fountain of duty, indeed the only one that ought to be acknowledged or admitted into the schools of Christian countries; and in my opinion, into their Colleges and Universities; for I should never think of Cicero's offices, of Epictetus, Seneca, or Antoninus, as text books of duty, where the Gospel was the *Moral Common Law* of the land. Is the question asked, how would you employ the scriptures in teaching duty? The answer is plain, by precept and example. I would have "A SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOK OF DUTIES," as of all the various affections. Under each head should be embraced illustrations from the lives of Christians, of the nature, importance and obligation of each duty. Every anecdote should be followed by practical reflections, suited to that particular instance; and all of the examples under any one head, by a more enlarged view of the duty. The whole work should then close with a clear, full summary of Christian duty, gathered from the whole body of precepts and examples, contained in the preceding pages.

Shall I be asked, what such "A Text Book of the Affections," and such "A Text Book of Duties" would have to do with the use of the Bible in common schools? I answer, that all the important texts, and especially entire passages, should be embodied in each work in suitable places; so that the volume would contain everything in the Bible on the subject of each particular affection or duty. This might be done, either by a reference, or by extracting the passage. The latter I should prefer; though it would extend the size of the work.

These Text Books of Duty and Affection I would make the subject of lessons, not to be *memorized*, but to be *thoroughly studied and understood.* The scholar should be required, throughout a particular, daily examination, to exhibit proof that he had mastered the facts, and comprehended the principles. This duty ought to be performed, not in the mode in which similar duties are too often performed by scholars and teachers; but in a manner commensurate to the importance of the subject. The very character of such a work would carry with it an authority unknown to ordinary works.

FOURTH.—But the scriptures not only stand in this twofold relation to the duties and affections of man; but they stand in a *third* very important relation to their *opposites.* Hence the propriety and necessity for "A SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOK OF THE PASSIONS AND VICES," to be contrasted with all the various duties and affections illustrated in the other two volumes. The arrangement of this might correspond to that of the other two, so that the first part might be devoted to the illustration of the passions opposite to the affections; and the second to that of the vices, as contrasts of the duties. The principles on which this book ought to be constructed, would be the same as in the two preceding, with respect to the use of scripture, to the examples, to the practical, preceptive explanations and to the summary at the end.

FIFTH.—The *fourth* relation in which the Bible stands to man, is found in the cultivation of the *intellectual powers.* This important use of the scriptures is generally overlooked in estimating their value; and yet the Bible excels all other books in the dignity and beauty, the depths, elevation and comprehensiveness of its thoughts. Hence, it necessarily furnishes the noblest and richest variety of materials for enlarging, strengthening and refining the intellectual powers. The whole body of Greek and Latin Literature contains nothing comparable to it, in these particulars. What can they teach that is worth learning, respecting the majesty, holiness and power of God, the universality of his presence, the wisdom of his moral government, the benevolence of his providence, and the eternity of his nature. What can they tell us of the immortality of the

soul, of its relations to God in time and eternity, of the solemnities of its duties and the loveliness of its affections; of the sublimity of its faith, and hopes, and destinies? What can they teach with regard to the nature and offices of angels, the character and duties of patriarchs, prophets, and apostles, the obligation of doing good, of loving all men, of spreading the gospel and of obeying God rather than man? And yet these thoughts are of such magnitude, and fitted to exercise such an influence over the mind, that if carefully and skilfully employed in the cultivation of the intellectual powers, these must be strengthened, enlarged, and elevated by them. Now there can be no difficulty in appropriating them to the attainment of this object, in the studies of the higher classes of common schools. The fourth work then, which we should stand in need of would be, "THE SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOK OF INTELLECTUAL IMPROVEMENT." This would consist of select passages from the Old and New Testaments, fitted to expand the mind, to give it grand conceptions of God, to fill it with noble thoughts of the dignity and value of the soul, and to breathe into it a generous sympathy with every human creature, as subject to the same passions and infirmities, and heirs of the same precious inheritance, the glorious liberty of the children of God. How is it possible that Christians have so long overlooked the incomparable excellence of the Bible, as a mere instrument of intellectual cultivation? How long will they continue to neglect the richest and purest, the only exhaustless fountain of such improvement? Such a volume should contain — to instance a few among numerous examples — the farewell charge of Moses to the Israelites, the story of Balaam, Psalms 91, and 139, Solomon's prayer at the dedication of the Temple, God's Address to Job, &c, &c. In this point of view, the Epistle to the Hebrews, regarded as a sermon and not an Epistle, is an oration, far more august, splendid, and affecting, than aught that Grecian or Roman Orator, ever even imagined. I would have the text of the work I am now speaking of, illustrated, wherever it could be be done, by selections from wise, profound and eloquent writers, and, when remarkable facts could be brought to bear upon the subject, they should be introduced.

SIXTH. — The *fifth* relation to man which the scriptures occupy, is to be found in the *cultivation of Taste and Imagination.* This indeed, is a subordinate object; but I regard it as of more consequence than most persons are disposed to acknowledge. The visible world is related in so many various forms, to the duties, business and pleasures of life, that just and interesting conceptions of external objects become very important. A pure and simple taste must be admitted to be a valuable acquisition to any one; though he should never be either a writer or speaker for the pub-

lic. There is something of moral beauty, gentleness, and artless familiarity in such a style, which recommends it to the minds and hearts of all. Now, the scriptures surpass all other books in simplicity and purity, both of style and thought. Nor is this all. They are equally superior to every other work, in sublimity and pathos, in narrative, didactic and descriptive composition. Is it not an object to bring such models to bear on the development of mind and the formation of taste and sentiment in the young? Ask any one if he would select the best or the inferior writers among mere human authors in order to cultivate similar qualities in our youth? and he will not hesitate to smile at the question, if he can believe you in earnest. Why are our class books of a similar description full of extracts from Dwight, Channing, Webster, Everett and others, but that the influence of eminent writers is esteemed invaluable, in the mental discipline to which they subject the taste, sentiment and feelings of the young? If then there be no doubt of the superiority of the Bible, in the sublime and the beautiful, the narrative and the pathetic, the descriptive and didactic, why should not such a book become a favorite standard? Had it been the production of *man only*, unassisted by inspiration, we cannot doubt, if we judge by the course hitherto pursued, that it would have been extensively and anxiously incorporated into the whole system of education. And does the vast superiority of its claims as a *divine* book, diminish its title to our respect and gratitude, merely in a literary point of view? To answer yes, would be like recommending the study of nature in the artificial pastorals of Pope, instead of walking abroad in the field and the valley, on the mountain and the ocean shore, to study in her own countenance the features of the grand, the wonderful, the fair.

I have spoken of *Taste and Sentiment*, but let us not overlook the *Imagination*. A well regulated imagination ought to be stored with the treasures of the scriptures, which are preëminently fitted to exercise and cultivate this faculty. The imagination ought to be so cultivated, as to be, if I may be allowed the analogy, A GALLERY OF THE FINEST PAINTINGS, historical, descriptive, and biographical. This can be accomplished, in the most eminent degree, by the scriptures only. There, according to the opinion of such accomplished scholars as Lowth and Jones, are to be found the most finished specimens of eloquence and poetry. They are not indeed arrayed in all the drapery of forms, approved by rhetoric and criticism; but they are above all forms, in venerable majesty and simplicity and purity, just as the mountain, the cataract, and the forest surpass, in all the elements of the grand and the beautiful, the Parthenon, the garden of the Leasowes, and the fountain of Versailles.

I would have then a *fifth* volume, to be entitled "THE SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOK OF TASTE, SENTIMENT AND IMAGINATION." This should contain a selection of the admirable passages scattered throughout the Bible, illustrative of these three topics. Accompanying them, should be also, side by side, when practicable, the finest passages of English poetry and prose, of corresponding character, designed to purify the taste, refine the sentiments, and exalt the imagination of youth. No one, I apprehend, who is familiar with the Old and New Testaments will hesitate to admit, that they abound in materials for the construction of the five works, whose character I have thus pointed out. And in like manner, all who are but moderately well read in English poetry, will concede that Milton, Cowper and Young, Pollok and Boyse, Cumberland, Heber and Watts, are rich in the illustrations we should need. Such works, executed with judgment, taste and piety, would be of themselves an invaluable library to the young; and would exercise, I am persuaded, a most efficient and valuable influence in *the formation of character*. If it be granted, as it must be, for theory and experience both concur in it, that books of a similar description are certainly now exercising precisely such an influence in all the *common schools*, throughout our land, how can it be doubted that those which I propose, must be endued with a still greater and better power? Their adoption into the general system of common schools, would be A NEW ERA IN THE MORALS AND LITERATURE OF THE PEOPLE. It seems to me almost unnecessary to say that I would have the Bible employed in common schools, not only in the modes already described, but also as *a daily reading book*. As such, I would not advise the reading of it regularly through, because I should first exclude all the passages comprised in the five text books already mentioned, and I would then from the residue, make such a selection as would be most appropriate for each class in succession. In order to assist the teacher in this part of the plan, it would be indispensable to have either a table of lessons, prepared as his guide, or to have a reading book compiled, which might, in conformity with the nomenclature already adopted be styled "THE SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOK OF LESSONS IN READING." The latter I should prefer.

I apprehend it is hardly necessary to say, that I should certainly recommend, in connection with the preceding works, "SCRIPTURE TEXT BOOKS OF SACRED GEOGRAPHY, OF SACRED ANTIQUITIES, OF SACRED BIOGRAPHY, AND OF ORIENTAL MANNERS AND CUSTOMS:" thus making a most complete library of scripture text books, for schools, families, and youth in general. — I trust that we may yet see such a collection: and that it will be the privilege and pleasure of the piety, good sense and taste of some of my own countrymen to produce them.

I cannot conclude these reflections, without noticing a difficulty, that is sometimes cast in our way by the pious and sensible. It is said, that, to make the Bible a school book, will impair its dignity and sanctity; that the young will acquire towards it a sentiment of indifference or familiarity, and that it will be less likely to influence their thoughts and conduct, than if it be excluded from schools. Is this true of any other book? Does the youth acquire such a feeling towards Homer, and Virgil, Cicero and Xenophon? Does he acquire it in relation to his parents and instructors, because he is brought so familiarly into contact with them every day? If the answer be affirmative, is it not manifest that the explanation is to be sought in the character of the book, or the mode of using it, or in the principles and conduct of the individual? If the book be deficient in dignity, purity, holiness, we should not be surprised at the result which has been apprehended. But if, on the contrary, it abounds in those qualities, if it be of a most grave and solemn character, then the source of the evil, should it exist, must be sought in one of the other causes. Now, as to the mode of using it, most assuredly such text books as I have suggested, would be calculated to enhance, not impair the dignity, importance and interest of the scriptures. Must not the solution of the difficulty be found, after all, in the character and conduct of the teacher? If he despise the scriptures, or if he should merely be indifferent to them, do you not at once perceive the consequences that must follow? And would not the result be the same, as to any other work? If you employ a man to teach Homer and Virgil, who has no relish for poetry, or who thinks lightly of the Iliad and Æneid, would you not expect him to communicate his spirit to his scholars? Can it be otherwise with the Bible? Must it not indeed be still more remarkably the case? The Iliad and Æneid carry no rebuke, no condemnation with them to the conscience of the teacher. They may interfere with his taste, or judgment, or estimate of usefulness; but they have no language for his hopes or fears. The scriptures, on the contrary, are an ever present accuser and judge. Is it wonderful then, that they are a daily thorn in his side, and that, as far as he dares, he will express his feelings in words and deeds? We know what the consequences must be.

The true solution then of the proposed difficulty, is to be found in the employment of teachers, hostile or indifferent to religion, and of course, to the Bible. But, let us employ those who honor and love the scriptures, who exhibit in their lives and conversation the beauty of holiness; and we may rest assured that Holy Writ will no longer be an object of indifference, or contempt, or hatred to youth. We should then behold it armed with a more commanding authority, invested with a more venerable dignity, and arrayed in

more attractive, affecting beauty. We should then behold it, very generally the friend and companion, alike of the rich and the poor, of the happy and miserable, of the prosperous and unfortunate, of the honored and neglected. We should then behold it, living and moving in its power, to bless and to save, in all the walks of life, and in all the departments of duty and usefulness, of business and pleasure. Then should we behold, for the first time, the broad and deep foundations, everywhere laid, of a Christian state of society, of Christian education, and of a Christian literature.

Art. III. — Review of Spurzheim on Education.

A View of the Elementary Principles of Education, founded on the Study of the Nature of Man. By G. Spurzheim, M. D., *of the Universities of Vienna and Paris, and Licentiate of the Royal College of Physicians of London. First American Edition, revised and improved by the Author, from the third London Edition.* Boston: Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1832. 12mo. pp. 318.

We find in this work much to study and to admire, and much to regret and disapprove. It presents the strongest indications of an original and powerful mind, accustomed to investigate with boldness, and to pronounce with decision, not to say with something of dogmatism, upon all points. While the love of truth is evidently strong, the marks of early prejudice, and the traces of impressions and feelings produced by his birth and residence amidst the political and religious institutions of the old continent, seem to us no less obvious. Accustomed from his childhood to employ the Sabbath merely as a day of recreation, it is not surprising that he should feel the strongest prejudice, against the method of keeping it adopted by the mass of Christians in this country. But it seems to us singular that he should so far depart from his own principles of education, as not to perceive its importance as a means of moral education, for which no substitute can be found. Were all divine authority out of the question, we believe that the state of knowledge and morals in various countries, beginning with Scotland and ending with France, will be found to be higher, in proportion to the attention paid to this weekly season for moral and religious cultivation. His first impressions of religious worship, and of the clergy, were of course formed from an examination of the corrupt establishments of Europe; and we cannot feel justified, in reviewing this work, to omit the remark, that nothing else in our view can excuse denunciations, which are by no means applicable to the

same class of men, or to the same institutions, in our own country. We are not a little astonished, however, that while Dr Spurzheim admits even an original organ for religious feeling, he should so far forget that we owe some duties directly to our Father in Heaven, as well as to our brethren on earth — that in directing the methods of religious education, he should entirely leave out of view the duty of love to our Creator; and should say that "children ought to be taught that *moral conduct* is the aim and end of their existence."

In these, and in many other points more directly belonging to theology, we have no sympathy with Dr Spurzheim; nor are these views the legitimate consequences of Phrenology, in the opinion of some of its most strenuous advocates. We are aware that this science has been employed, as Astronomy and Geology once were, to overthrow the authority of revelation; but like those sciences, it has been found by the friends of Christianity, an important auxiliary in its explanation and defence. And when we are assured that such men as Thomas Chalmers and the late Andrew Thompson, of Edinburgh, regard it in this light, we have no apprehension that any principle which may be well established upon this subject, can be at variance with those which bear the stamp of divine authority. We are only anxious that it should be thoroughly and impartially investigated; and then we have no fear, but that the works of God will be found in entire harmony with his revealed truth. The only danger then, is in superficial, or *ex-parte* examinations.

We do not specify the points to which we allude more particularly, because this is not the place for theological discussion. It is our duty, to present to our readers the most valuable facts and principles within our reach in relation to the *manner* of instructing and training the young mind, rather than to exhibit the system of truths which are to be taught. Were we to leave out of view all other branches of knowledge, it would require a periodical or a volume devoted to it, to give even an imperfect view of the principles of morality and religion, and of the order and manner in which they should be presented to the mind of a child. We turn therefore at once to our appropriate task — a task, to which neither our limits, nor our entire efforts are sufficient to do justice; and we only regret, that in this case, we can give our readers so imperfect a view of the interesting facts and principles developed in the volume before us. We rejoice to find however, that we have been enabled, during the two years past, to present the most important of them in connection with their practical illustrations in the schools of Europe and of our own country; and we are highly gratified to find them confirmed by the observation and reflections of a mind like that of Spurzheim. That our difference of opinion on points of importance, has not in his view, led us astray in regard to our

general principles, we are glad to infer from the fact, that he kindly recommends our work to the perusal of his readers, and from his remark in conversation, that he read a portion of it every day.

Under the term education, Dr Spurzheim embraces "every means which can be made to act upon the vegetative, affective and intellectual constitution of man," upon the body, the heart, or the mind. He commences with tracing the improvement of mankind in various points; and is forced to the conclusion, that education has made less progress than almost any art or science. He ascribes this chiefly to the fact, that those who engage in education have attended too little to the structure of the being to be educated, and have adapted their plans too much to a particular standard, either derived from themselves, or from theoretical views, without any variation, correspondent to the endless varieties of the human mind. Another error of which we have repeatedly spoken, he considers equally dangerous — the impression that faculties are to be in some sort *formed*, instead of being *cultivated* — that the mind and character of each pupil is to be cast in some prescribed mould, instead of being merely developed according to his individual capacity and destination.

Among the means of improving our race, he first maintains at some length, the necessity of attending to the laws of hereditary descent. He next describes "the laws of the vegetative functions," with reference particularly to the periods of childhood; and presents maxims of physical education, which deserve the attention of all those who are concerned in the management of beings so susceptible of influence from external causes. His views on the influence of mental cultivation at this period of life, are entirely in accordance with those which we quoted in our last number from the work of Dr Brigham; and we cannot refrain from urging upon the attention of our readers, the following forcible remarks on the evils arising from inattention to this subject.

"During childhood, as well as in infancy, the regulation of the vegetative functions ought to be the most important point of education. A good and healthy organization is the basis of all employment and of all enjoyment. Many parents, however, are anxious to cultivate the mind at the expense of the body. They think they cannot instruct their offspring early enough to read and to write, whilst their bodily constitution and health are overlooked. Children are shut up, forced to sit quiet, and to breathe a confined air. This error is the greater, the more delicate the children, and the more premature their mental powers are. The bodily powers of such children are sooner exhausted, they suffer from dyspepsia, headache, and a host of nervous complaints; their brain is liable to inflammation and serious effusion; and a premature death is frequently the consequence of such

a violation of nature. It is indeed to be lamented, that the influence of the physical on the moral part of man, is not sufficiently understood. There are parents who will pay masters very dearly, in hope of giving excellency to their children, but who will hesitate to spend the tenth part to procure them bodily health. Some by an absurd infatuation, take their own constitutions as a measure of those of their children, and because they themselves, in advanced life, can support confinement and intense application with little injury to health, they conclude that their young and delicate children can do the same. Such notions are altogether erroneous, — bodily deformities, curved spines, and unfitness for various occupations, and the fulfilment of future duties, frequently result from such misunderstood management of children. The advantages of a sound body are incalculable for the individuals themselves, their friends and their posterity. Body and mind ought to be cultivated in harmony, and neither of them at the expense of the other. Health should be the basis, and instruction the ornament of early education. The development of the body will assist the manifestations of the mind, and a good mental education will contribute to bodily health. The organs of the mental operations when they are too soon and too much exercised, suffer and become unfit for their functions. This explains the reason why young geniuses often descend at a later age into the class of common men. Indeed, experience shows, that among children of almost equal dispositions, those who are brought up without particular care, and begin to read and to write when their bodily constitution has acquired some solidity, soon overtake those who are dragged early to their spelling books, at the detriment of their bodily frame. No school education, strictly speaking, ought to begin before seven years of age. We shall, however, see in the following chapter, on the laws of exercise, that many ideas and notions may be communicated to children by other means than books, or by keeping them quiet on benches. When education shall become practical and applicable to the future destination of individuals, children will be less plagued with nothings, but they will be made answerable not only for their natural gifts of intellect, but also for the just employment of their moral powers, and the preservation and cultivation of their bodily constitution, since vigor in it is indispensable to enjoyment and usefulness. They will be made acquainted with the natural laws of nutrition, and all vital functions, and with their influence on health."

Dr Spurzheim next gives a very interesting view of "the laws of exercise," for the various faculties of man, and exhibits very forcibly the folly of attempting to cultivate the mind, by acquiring the ideas of others instead of exercising our own powers. He shows very clearly the mistake of those, who require children to devote their time almost exclusively to artificial signs, instead of acquiring positive knowledge. Nothing certainly can be more absurd than to suppose either that the mind is improved, or that

knowledge is acquired, by the mere *translation*, as it may be termed, of one class of signs by another class, in themselves, equally removed from the thing signified. Yet how many seem to suppose, that a child is sufficiently acquainted with his mother tongue, when he can repeat the sound of a word, on seeing its characters, or write the characters on hearing the sound, whether he knows what idea is intended by those characters or sounds, or not. How common is it, to consider him as well acquainted with numbers when he can repeat the names of the Arabic signs, and go through the round of operations, with these magical characters, which his rule prescribes, in such a way as "*to bring the answer*," although he may have no conception of the nature, or object, or application of the process in which he has been engaged. It is not less surprising, to find many teachers who imagine that their pupils have a thorough knowledge of Geography, when they can tell the names which are attached to the lines and spots upon their maps, and repeat the sentences of the book which relates to them.

In connection with the subject of artificial signs, Dr Spurzheim endeavors to show the inconsistency of making the acquisition of languages *the principal object* of education; or of supposing that the mind cannot gain ideas, without having a variety of names by which to designate each. "I had rather learn ten ideas, in a given time, than ten different signs which express but one and the same idea," is one of his maxims to which almost every one would assent. And yet what a disproportionate amount of labor is often spent upon mere signs, in the early period of life, to the exclusion of any thorough knowledge of the objects of nature or the truths of science; and above all, with an almost entire neglect of those branches of knowledge by which a youth may be made acquainted with his own powers of body and of mind, and with his duties and destiny, as a member of society, and as an immortal being. While Dr Spurzheim admits the importance of cultivating the ancient languages and the mathematical sciences, he utterly denies that these, or any other particular studies are the exclusive tests of intellectual ability, or the exclusive means of intellectual improvement, or of extensive usefulness; and considers the distinctions founded upon these alone, as artificial and unjust.

Under the laws of exercise he also presents the very important consideration, that the feelings are to be cultivated, not so much through the medium of the intellect, as by calling them directly into exercise — not by instruction so much as by example. Fear is more effectually overcome by frequent exposures to danger, than by any course of reasoning upon the subject; and benevolence is more effectually cultivated, by becoming familiar with the objects which it ought to relieve, than by the most powerful arguments or

exhortations. In reference to the educator himself, the only effectual method is that so well described by Combe, "Whatever you wish your child to be or to do — be that, or do that to him." The application of this principle in discipline, which is made by Dr Spurzheim, is not so frequently thought of. The feelings, he maintains, are best excited and cultivated by sympathy, — by means of that natural language of manner, and expression, and tone, which exhibits our hearts to others. It is on this principle that that seeming paradox of the wise man is founded; "A soft answer turneth away wrath." "In showing anger to children," says Dr Spurzheim, "you give them a practical lesson." A single paroxysm of passion may be overcome by angry violence; but mild and firm reproof, and kind treatment, will be far more effectual in correcting the habit, and subduing the disposition, because it will cultivate the opposite feeling in the child himself.

In a succeeding chapter, Dr Spurzheim treats of the mutual influence of the faculties in exciting each other; and describes the sympathy of the various organs of the body, and the different faculties and propensities of the mind, as analogous and ultimate facts. He regards the association of ideas, instead of being a primitive power, as a simultaneous activity of two powers, which may as readily take place among the feelings, and which corresponds to the excitement of the intellect by the feelings, or of the feelings by the intellect. He next urges the importance of morality, and of course of moral education, as far superior to mere cultivation of the intellect. He observes that it is "as necessary to the prosperity of mankind as oxygen to combustion, and respiration to human life." He reprobates the system which makes "the cultivation of the understanding" the principal object of education; and observes, that persons thus educated, "often convert their intellect into scourges of society, and are the greatest enemies to the happiness of the race."

In the following chapters, Dr Spurzheim presents a great many valuable principles and maxims of education, in treating of the activity of the faculties, the motives of action, and the difference of natural endowment. The degree of strength and of activity in the various powers, indicates, in his view, the course of education which must be adopted by each individual. The most active propensities have the least need of cultivation; while on the other hand, it is idle to attempt to raise all men to the same standard, or to compel any individual to attempt acquisitions for which he has neither the faculties nor disposition. In reference to the motives to be employed in education, Dr S. believes that they also must be varied, according to the character of the individual, and that the same discipline, or means of excitement, cannot be employed for all. In regard to emulation, he observes — "It is a great stimulus for

children to learn their lessons, but as its influence is so great in society, and as it is so much cultivated in social relations, I find it advisable to omit it entirely in school education." He remarks also, in speaking of the influence of patronage on the improvement of literature and science, that "mankind will suffer, and that all institutions will remain imperfect, as long as selfishness and glory are the aim of our actions."

The remainder of the work is occupied with the application of these principles to the education of the sexes and of nations, and an appendix on the subject of crimes and punishments, which our limits do not permit us to examine, even cursorily. We can only mention his leading principles. In reference to the sexes, he maintains that their education should correspond to the marked difference of powers and destination between them; and that the attempt to prescribe the same course of instruction and training for both, is in direct opposition to the designs of Providence. In the education of nations, he believes that the duties devolving on a government, correspond in their *nature* to those of a parent. In regard to penal laws, while he maintains the utility and necessity of punishment, both to society and to the individual, he urges that the strength of natural propensity should be admitted as a palliation of crime, no less than immediate provocation; and that some who are now treated as criminals, should rather be confined as partially insane or idiotic; and should be subjected to a course of moral training, rather than mere vindictive punishment.

On the whole, we find in this volume a development of the most improved principles of the modern school in education, which ought to be perused by all who have time to devote to reading on this subject; and we think it is not difficult for those familiar with the scriptures to separate them from all which is opposed to revealed truth. They will learn too the interesting fact, that the new science of which Dr Spurzheim was one of the parents, confirms the opinions which were formed, before its origin, from general views of human nature, in regard to the best manner of preparing man for his present duties, and his future destiny.

Art. IV. — On the Office of Instructors.

By the Baron de Gerando.

Mr. Woodbridge.—I have lately received from Europe a Course of Lectures, delivered by the Baron de Gérando, before the Normal School of Primary Instructors, founded in Paris, by M. le Comte de

Chabrol. It comprises directions for physical, intellectual and moral education, and breathes throughout his own philanthropic and Christian sentiments. I have translated the first lecture, "Upon the dignity of the office of Primary Instructors." Should you not like to give it a place in your "Annals"? E. P. P.

My Friends,—The vocation of a primary instructor is not merely a profession. It is an office in the state, which is about to be confided to you; it is a mission which you are called on to fulfil; it is a moral ministry with which you are about to be invested.

The laws of the state have recognised the importance, the absolute necessity of this office. They have sent you forth on this mission.—They have laid the foundation of this ministry; and they continually regulate and protect it. The primary instructor is a public officer, and takes rank in the community with the other officers of the state, whose services and relations to the public have an object of common interest. To the dignity of this situation, and to the legitimate authority which flows from it, may be added that which is derived from the fact, that a number of families place in your hands the precious deposit of their children, and make you the delegates and representatives of the paternal character. Your dignity, my friends, is therefore a reflection or emanation of the high dignity confided to the Father of a Family by Divine Providence, by nature, and by the laws of the state. Your ministry is associated with the ministry of religion. Instruction is the handmaid of religion; and your school-room is the portico of the temple of God.

Those laborious professions, sometimes contemptuously called *trades*, have a double claim to respectability from their utility, and from the courageous perseverance with which their fatigues are supported. You will be the last to undervalue these professions, for your labors will bring you into constant intercourse with those who exercise them; and the peculiar relation which you have to this class of the community, gives its peculiar importance to your office, as well as makes it the more honorable; for how can the real value of any particular station be estimated, except by a consideration of its usefulness to the general interest? Man is placed on earth by Providence, to make his life *fruitful*, and to contribute his part to the welfare of others. This is recognised by society too; for you will remark that the external honors it decrees, are ever, in the first place, a tribute to the importance of services rendered, a striking expression of gratitude. It is true, external honors, do often give a false impression; for they often descend upon posterity without being supported by the virtues which first called them forth. Neither are they necessary, even in the first instance, to prove the value of services. You, my dear hearers, may learn from other considerations the foundations of your dignity. Let us proceed to these considerations.

The special object of your services are the morality and intelligence of the community, the most precious of all its interests, allied to all that is noblest in humanity. And in what can men more ef-

fectually contribute to the happiness of men, than in aiding them to enter into possession of the faculties they have received for procuring it? In providing, as you do, for the first wants of the mind and heart, for the most essential wants of the creature endowed with intelligence and sensibility, are you not the messengers of reason and virtue to your fellow beings?

The duration of the good which you may effect, is increased in proportion to the early period of life in which you act. You sow your seed in a virgin soil. You lay the foundation of the edifice. Rearing childhood from the cradle, in its innocence and simplicity, it is your duty to introduce it into the paths of knowledge and goodness. By the aid of what you bestow, it may acquire all other blessings.

Your services have also an extensive influence. They immediately affect a great number of families. Thousands of individuals may in turn acknowledge you for their guides, either from your instructions, or those of your pupils. Indirectly, you constantly influence the families of your pupils. What a precious gift do you bestow, when you restore to a family a child capable of improving itself eternally! The whole family is often improved by the new ideas and example. Indirectly, also, you must influence the whole place you inhabit—the whole society of which you are a member. Industry, good manners, general well-being, peace, and public order, are the slow, but certain fruits, of a good direction given to the primary education of children. Yes; society expects from you these elements of its prosperity,—these securities for its future welfare.

How great, then, is the sacredness of your mission! You are called on to contribute to the progress of civilization itself! The improvement of the condition of the mass of society, in knowledge and morality, is now, more than ever before, felt to be essential to the security and development of our institutions. Nations which aspire to liberty, can only render themselves capable of attaining, or worthy of enjoying it, by means of the virtue and knowledge which are the consequences of such offices as yours.

In the fourth place, the consideration of the legitimate character of your office leads us to inquire, who are the immediate objects of your services? And are there any members of the great community of men, who inspire a more tender interest than the feeble, inexperienced beings who stand on the threshold of life, surrounded by dangers, from which they can only be preserved by the development of something within, which must, however, be called forth from without? And when you look at the least favored classes of society, how must your interest and your zeal proportionally increase? Children, who are destined to a life of privation and fatigue, need a provision of strength and patience proportionally more abundant. The more painful their condition promises to be, the more interesting also it will be to you to alleviate it, beforehand, by timely aid; to teach them to do *more* and *better, with less effort*, and by making them virtuous, to arm them with true energy of character. The less time

they have to devote to liberal education, the more important you will feel it that they should improve the rapid moments. The more they have been neglected, and the less they have been guided by good counsel and example, the more necessary will be your assistance. Perhaps they are poor and destitute: then there is offered you a nobler privilege still,—a higher mission,—the career which is "twice blessed." In procuring for these children the means of overcoming the difficulties of their condition, you strike at the root of their misfortune. You do more than console them; you arm them with courage against misfortune, the power to create resources for themselves.

And this leads me to another mode of estimating your office. It demands of you sacrifices; but in proportion to their extent, your services increase in interest and honor. Nothing less is demanded of you, it is true, than your whole existence. You no longer belong to yourselves, but to others. Your whole life may be, and ought to be, devoted to them. Not only your time, but your liberty, and the combined action of all your faculties. But is it not a blessing to you, as men, that the honor of your vocation in life is proportioned to the call it makes on you for magnanimity, well disciplined character, and intelligence? One of the most difficult of qualifications is demanded of you—that of untiring patience. Surrounded by ignorant and perhaps undisciplined children, you will be obliged to descend to them, and to make yourselves, in some sort, children with them. You will meet with continual obstacles and difficulties, over which you can only triumph by calm perseverance; and these obstacles will sometimes be occasioned by the prejudices, vicious habits, and grossness of the parents themselves. Opposed and disgusted by them, often without the support or guidance of a wise adviser and friend, all your resources must be found within yourselves. But besides this patience and internal resource, it will be necessary for you to unite to solid information, that talent for teaching which is much more rare, and more difficult of acquirement. You are also expected to possess, not only a wise, firm, indulgent character, and a life free from reproach, but an ascendancy over the characters of others, and the power of directing and mastering them; with the ability to form their habits, and penetrate their souls with your influence.

I must confess, that in return for all which is required of you, too little external compensation is at present offered you. All the friends of the great and noble work of elementary education, mourn over the insufficiency and uncertainty of the compensation that is allotted to you. They unceasingly try all possible measures to procure you a more just remuneration, and they do hope to see your labors better rewarded. But, shall I say it? (the good men who hear me will comprehend my meaning;) if the recompense does not correspond to the utility of your services, that very circumstance enhances the real dignity of your office. The less it is rewarded, the more disinterestedness it supposes on the part of those who fulfil its duties. Is it by the fees paid that we estimate the true value of services rendered to our fellow men? On the contrary, gratuitous services have

ever been considered the most honorable; and a duty that is ill recompensed, approaches a gratuitous service. Society is indebted to you. It owes you esteem, and it will ultimately pay it; and the thoughts of its most valued members will follow you in the modest asylum, which will soon witness your devotedness to the good work, amid those arduous labors of which the world is ignorant.

But what more certain testimony of general esteem could you receive, than the confidence that is felt in you? for confidence, you are aware, cannot be founded upon anything but esteem. In your hands are deposited the objects of the most tender affection. You are associated in all the dearest interest and solicitude of parents. It is confided to you to preserve and prepare the happiness and future welfare of families. To you is granted an almost boundless power; everything is confided to you, without any other guarantee than your character and your conduct. At some future day, we hope to see these little children, who are the objects of your care, add to this sentiment another, not less honorable to you,—the sentiment of *gratitude*. After having been introduced by you to the light of reason,—after having been sustained by your first lessons of wisdom, your pupils will feel their obligation to you in proportion to the value of the instruction. They will feel it more every day after they have left you, by applying your instructions, and finding how useful they are to them in the duties of life. When arrived at the age at which they establish themselves in life, they will meet you, and come to see you. They will always receive you joyfully, eagerly press around you, and seek in you a friend and guide, and recur ever to your counsels. The number of those who are thus to be indebted to you, increases every year. From all sides you will receive this voluntary tribute of affection; and when you shall have grown old in your labors, you will be surrounded with many generations of those to whom you have done good. My dear hearers, how noble and rare is this prerogative which is reserved for you, of deserving and obtaining the gratitude of your fellow men! This homage is far superior to the vain applauses bestowed upon power or success; it is much more valuable than the brilliant glory of renown.

Let me remark upon another rare advantage of your position. It affords you a constant opportunity of perfecting yourselves; and it furnishes you with motives and means to do so. It calls upon you to exercise your faculties in the most active and continuous manner. You will be obliged to study incessantly. You will have subjects of observation as interesting as numerous. You will learn as you teach. You will become better, while seeking to direct your pupils, and to make them good. You will constantly acquire new strength in the persevering and courageous fulfilment of your difficult duties.

This high and just esteem, which I am happy to express here in your presence, for the functions you are about to fulfil, has often been expressed before, and in different ways, by a great number of estimable men, at the head of whom we are happy to find the most enlightened philanthropists. Some have labored for you, by seeking

to perfect the methods of instruction which you employ. Some have produced an amelioration of your condition, and taken the necessary measures for the security of your future welfare. Some have used their efforts to increase the number of schools, or have founded them at their own expense. Some, penetrated with the true spirit of religion, have invoked its support in your favor; some have given you wise counsels; some have recommended, directed and formed seminaries for instructors; some have wished to associate themselves with you in your labors; and all, in these different undertakings, have shown, that in their eyes your ministry is one of the most powerful means of doing good. In Germany, we have seen the respectable prebendary of Rochow, and the Count of Bucquoy, endowing Saxony and Bohemia with generous institutions for primary education. The illustrious Campe labored at the same time for instructors and for children. Zerrenner, Wilmser, and many of their countrymen, have published treatises and manuals for the masters of elementary schools. The venerable curate Demeter is creating a method of instruction, and giving rules for discipline. And the zealous Dinter, an instructor himself, has become a guide for his fellow laborers, by his plan of improvements in country schools. In England, Drs. Bell and Lancaster have rivalled each other in zeal to simplify instruction, and extend its salutary influences. In Switzerland, the excellent Pestalozzi devoted his whole life to the noble object of ameliorating education in all classes, from the first lessons of the mother, to those which introduce the pupil to the sciences; and devoting himself to the development of the intellect by the exercise of teaching. Fellenberg, that distinguished friend of humanity, has erected, amidst the vast establishments of Hofwyl, a Normal School for primary instructors, and an Agricultural School for the children of the country, to which he gives the most salutary moral direction. In France, since the end of the eighteenth century, the respectable prebendary of Laselle erected a special institute for the direction of primary schools, and created the simultaneous method of instruction, and for twenty years struggled against every difficulty and obstacle, that the holy cause of elementary education might triumph. In our days, we have had the good Abbé Gaultier, who, spending his life in the midst of children, breathing only for them, and teaching without relaxation, is also the friend of all instructors, enlightening them by his advice, and encouraging them by his benevolence. And our dear and venerated Liancourt, whose great soul, embracing in its solicitude all the interests of humanity, the wants of the poor, the sufferings of the sick, the relief of the imprisoned, the propagation of inoculation, the development of mechanical education, founded, at his own expense, schools worthy of serving as models,—and was always found first wherever the progress of these institutions could be advanced. The most eminent men in science and public stations, have, by their writings or efforts, prepared and seconded this same progress. How numerous, too, are the associations of the friends of humanity, who, in Holland, England, Scotland and Ireland, in all

the cantons of Switzerland, at Florence, and in the United States of America, which have been formed to aid in the diffusion of knowledge, by seeking for improvements, visiting your schools, applauding your success, and rewarding your efforts.

What a testimony to the importance of your office, is the co-operation of such men, my hearers! In the exercise of your duty, you are surrounded, as it were, like the first preachers of Christianity, with "a cloud of witnesses," who render you present assistance, and call on you, more eloquently than I can do, to fulfil your duties worthily.

But this opens a new subject, of which you have already the presentiment. In our next lecture, we shall consider the dispositions essential to the primary instructor, and all the responsibilities attendant upon his office, at once the source and the emanation of his dignity.

Art. V. — Practical Lessons on Reading.

Method of Teaching Children to Read and Spell.

By J. L. Parkhurst.

(Continued from No. 1.)

[We regret that the pressure of other articles has obliged us to defer this article; and still compels us to leave it unfinished.]

In teaching him to *spell*, I have, for two or three days, spread before him twenty-one small letters, and eight or nine capitals. He is beginning to spell sentences. I consider it of some importance, that he should have the letters placed before him in the proper position, and in alphabetical order.

Aug. 14.—Having placed the letter *t* under *n*, I have taught H. the combination *ot;* not, however, without some difficulty. He has also, this morning, made several unaccountable mistakes, in repeating his exercise with the tickets. When I showed him *op*, he said *ol*, and then *on*, before calling it right; and when I showed him *on*, he hesitated, and called it wrong once or twice. He remembers perfectly the seven words that he learned yesterday. I find it much more difficult for him to remember unmeaning syllables of two letters, than it is significant words of three or four letters. I wish to carry the experiment farther, before I form my opinion; but I am at present strongly inclined to believe, that it would be better, at first, entirely to omit the duo-literal combinations. Let the child first spend one month, and perhaps six months, in learning significant words and sentences; then let him go through a thorough course with the 'ticket system'; and, *after all that*, let him learn the *names* of the letters.

H. has to-day learned, in Less. 6, the sentence, "He walks with his feet, and works with his hands,"—containing *five* new words. In teaching him to *spell*, when he hesitates, I let him look at the word in the book, to see what selection and arrangement of letters to make. This serves to impress the forms of the letters more distinctly and deeply on his mind.

Aug. 15.—H. has learned *at*, and has made, I believe, only a single error in reading with his tickets,—calling *op ol*, but correcting himself. In showing him, in Lessons 6 and 7, such words as he has learned, he has

made several errors, arising from the impression which I mentioned Aug. 8. To teach him the *capitals*, I have placed a few of them in a row, directly over the corresponding small letters. I feel quite at a loss in regard to the best method of teaching the capitals. What I might have thought of Mr Worcester's method, if I had followed it implicitly, and not covered the capitals in Lessons 1 & 2, I cannot say; but at present I regret that any words begin with capitals in Lessons 3—9, except the first word in each sentence. It appears to me that the capitals ought to be learned more gradually, or more systematically. And I am even inclined to think, that it would be better if *no capitals at all* were used, till about the 10th Lesson. I find that after H. could spell both *the* and *top* with small letters, and *The* with a capital, he could not tell, by that, how to spell *Top* with a capital.

Aug. 17.—Having placed *m* between *n* and *t*, I have taught H. the combination *om*. He found it very hard to remember; and so he has *on*.

H. is exceedingly fond of spelling. I just now set out to teach him the power or use of final *s*. He has before learned the words *leg* and *legs* in the Primer. With his alphabet before him, I told him to spell *leg*. He did it. I added *s*, and asked him what it was. He told me. I told him to spell *boy*. He did so. Then taking the *s* up, "What is that?" "*Leg*." "What is that?" "*Legs*." "What is that?" "*Boy*." "What is that?" "I don't know." "That is *boys*. You and William and Edward are boys, you know." "Yes, sir." Then, having repeated the same questions in the same order, I told him to spell *hat*. He did so. Then I began again at *leg*, moved the *s* as before, asked the same four questions, and immediately added, "What is that?" "*Hat*." "What is that?" "I don't know." "That is *hats;* such as you and William and I wear on our heads." Then, having repeated the six questions in the same order, I told him to spell *cup*. And before I had time to go over the questions again, he said, pointing at the word *cup* and the *s* which lay annexed to *hat*, "I know what *that* and *that* make; it is *cups*." I then had him spell *hen:* and he knew, in a moment, how to pronounce the word with the *s* added. Perhaps he would have found out the word *hats*, had not the sound of *s*, at the end of this word, been a little different from its sound at the end of *leg* and *boy;* the one sound being sibilant, and the other soft like z. I feel as if he had acquired more knowledge of the power and use of the letter *s*, than he possesses of any other letter in the alphabet.

Aug. 18.—H. has learned *am* with his tickets; also to read *She runs fast* in Less. 6. I find, to-day, that he can pronounce, with *s* added, any word which he before knew without the *s*. Mr Worcester says, 'Be careful to keep the mind of the child occupied but a few minutes at a time.' I really believe H. would be glad to spell a whole hour at a time, if I could attend to him.

Aug. 19.—I placed the vowel *i* under *a*, on the left side of the slate, and taught H. the combination *ib* immediately after *ob* and *ab*. He then read thus: ab, ib; ob, ib; ob, ab, ib; op, ob, ib; ap, ab, ib; op, ap, ib; &c.

Aug. 20.—He learned *ip*. He read thus: ob, ab, ib; op, ap, *ip*. Then, ob, op; ab, ap; ib, ip; followed by a repetition of former exercises. He also learned *It is hot.*

Aug. 21.—H. learned to read *Get my hat.* With the tickets, I attempted to make H. find out *il*, without being told. I began thus: ob, ab, ib; op, ap, ip; ol, al, *il;* hoping that when he came to *il*, he would tell it of his own accord; but I was disappointed.

Aug. 22.—In the morning, I attempted, in the same manner, to make H. find out *ix;* but with the same ill success. I began to feel a little dis-

couraged in regard to his future progress. After breakfast, when I tried him to see if he remembered *it*, he pointed at the *i* and the next consonant *g*, and asked me what *that* and *that* spelled. He has frequently before asked me similar questions. I told him I could not inform him to-day, but should be glad to have him find out himself. I gave him an opportunity thus: ob, ab, ib; op, ap, ip; ol, al, il; ox, ax, ix; og, ag, — ; and when the *i* and *g* came together, he paused a moment, and then said "*ig*." This was what I had so ardently desired. I was satisfied; and had no thought of showing him any more new combinations to-day. But this afternoon, having sat down to let his Ma witness his performance, and having let him read the fifteen combinations just mentioned, he, to our surprise, and of his own accord, pointed at the *i* and *n*, which lay quite distant from each other, and said, "That and that is *in*." "So it is, Henry," said I. "And that and that is *im*, and that and that is *it*," continued he, almost in the same breath, and before I had time to place the letters together. The next thing was to take the vowel *i*, and move it along the consonants in order from *b* to *t*. He hesitated only in one instance, and found out that, by having the consonant moved along the three vowels. I am far from supposing that he can tell the five combinations he has learned to-day, when taken promiscuously; and, therefore, I do not expect to show him the next vowel for two or three days.

He makes daily improvement in spelling, though it is difficult to record this improvement with the pen. He is much pleased with the capitals, and has learned pretty well the use of the greater part of them. I now teach him to spell in the following manner: the board containing the letters is laid before him in a chair, with a book for him to lay the letters on, in spelling each word. I sit down, the other side of the room, with a book in my hand or the babe in my arms. He spells a word on his book, with small letters, and brings it to me to see if it is right. If so, I take his book and send him after the initial capital of the same word. I then tell him another word to spell. When he spells wrong, I open his album or the Primer, to the page containing the word, and let him find it, or show it to him; and away he hies to his alphabetic board. When he declares himself unable to spell a word assigned him, I set him to select and bring to me as many letters of the word as he can recollect; and have him tell me whether the letter he has brought, or the letter that is wanting, is the *first*, or *last*, or *middle* letter of the word. He then completes the word by seeing it in the Primer, as before. A peculiar advantage of this method is, to make him think intensely of the word he is to spell, and the form of each letter, while he is walking across the room.

Another method I must not omit to mention. Showing him some large word printed all in capitals, I let him tell what words he can spell with each letter. Take, for instance, the title of a newspaper, as CHRISTIAN MIRROR. Pointing at the first letter, he says, "That is to spell *Cat* with." "What else?" "*Cow*." "What else?" "*Cup*." Pointing at the next letter, he says, "That is to spell *He* with." And on my asking him what else, he mentions *Hat*, *Hen* and *Hog*. or as many of them as he can recollect. "The next letter is to spell *Rat* with; the next is to spell *I can hop* with; the next is to spell *Sun* with; the next is to spell *The* and *Top* with; the next is *I*; the next is capital *A*; the next, I don't know; the next is to spell *Man* and *Mug* with;" and so on. He has got so that he very seldom commits such a mistake as to show me a capital *O* or *W*, and asks if that is to spell *Cow* with. It seems to me important that a child should learn, that the initial of a word is the letter that should be a capital. I therefore dislike Mr W.'s method of spelling words for children *all* in

capitals. They are very seldom so spelled in books. Hence it gives the child an erroneous impression.

Aug. 23. H. learned two new sentences, containing two new words.

"*Aug.* 24. H. has learned one new sentence, containing one new word. As I apprehended, he hesitates and errs considerably in reading promiscuously what he learned with his tickets, Aug. 22."

Aug. 25. The following is one of the best and most convenient methods of conducting a promiscuous exercise with the tickets: First, form the combinations *ob*, *ap*, *il*, leaving each vowel by the side of its consonant. Then slide the *i* down to the next consonant *x*; then slip the vowel *a* after the *i* so as to form the combination *al*; and then let the *o* follow the *a*. Then move down the *i* again; and so on.

Aug. 26. Having placed the vowel *u* under *i*, I taught H. *ub*; also, to read one new sentence, containing three new words.

Aug. 27. H. learned *up*, and also to read one new sentence, containing three new words.

Aug. 28. H. has this morning found out *ul*, *ux*, *ug*, *un*, *um*, *ut*, in the same manner that he did *ig*, *in*, *im* and *it*, on the 22d. He has to-day learned one new sentence, containing three new words. I now indulge him in having the Primer to look at by himself, and to find, in any part of the book, such words as he knows. He also sometimes does the same in a newspaper. He now very seldom mistakes a word that he has not learned, for one that he has.

Aug. 29. H. can read promiscuously what he learned yesterday with his tickets. He has to-day learned two new sentences, and three new words.

Aug. 30. H. has learned two new sentences, containing five new words.

Aug. 31. H. has learned two new sentences, containing two new words.

It is now just *one month* since H. began. I have made out a list, from which I find that he has learned sixty-five words from the Primer, and thirty-two duo-literal combinations from the tickets, eight of which are significant words, that he understands; making a total of seventy-three words. I have reckoned the addition of *s*, as constituting a separate word only in a single instance. I think that one half of the time has been spent on the tickets; so that, without these, he might have learned one hundred and thirty words in the month; and, without the capitals, probably one hundred and fifty. I reckon nothing as LEARNED, which is not REMEMBERED."

"*Sept.* 1. Having placed the vowel *e* under *u*, I have taught H. *eb*; also, two new sentences, containing five new words. Yesterday, having spelled *feet* with tickets, he covered or removed the last letter, and asked if it was *foot* now. This singular question is thus accounted for: he had learned that the addition of *s* forms the *plural*, and its removal, the *singular*; and it seems he had thought of the sense quite as much as the sound. *Feet* was the first word he had seen that formed its plural irregularly; but he, guided by analogy, and not being aware that the irregularity in the spoken word affected the written one, concluded that the singular must probably be formed by the omission of the *final consonant*.

Sept. 2. H. had forgotten *eb*. Of course, I taught him nothing new with his tickets: this is my invariable rule. He has learned two new sentences, containing three new words.

Sept. 3. H. this morning found out *ep*, *el*, *ex*, *eg*, *en*, *em*, *et*, in the manner mentioned Aug. 22d and 28th. He has also learned two new sentences, containing three new words.

INTELLIGENCE.

Convention of Teachers at Cincinnati.

In our number for November 1831, we gave an account of the formation, in Cincinnati, of an Institution to be called "The Western Academic Institute and Board of Education;" of their purposes and objects, and of their first Annual Meeting and proceedings. We also announced the first number of a monthly periodical, to be the organ of the Institute and a means of diffusing correct and enlarged views on the subject of Education. Although we had heard no more of the work until quite recently, we could not believe that the spirit which dictated the first number would be permitted to slumber; and were not therefore surprised to find on our table, a few weeks since, another number, issued in Dec. last. It consists of 40 octavo pages. The articles are the following.

Art. I. To the Public. II. On a well digested system of Education. III. The importance and advantages of cooperation in the cause of Education. IV. On the feasibility of establishing the Western College of Professional Teachers. V. Proceedings of the Convention. VI. Constitution. VII. Letter of the Corresponding Secretary. Added to these articles is an Appendix containing several important articles, on the Construction of School Houses, Classification and branches of study in Schools, and Reports of Trustees of various Common Schools.

From the article entitled "Proceedings of the Convention," we learn that a Convention of Teachers was held in Cincinnati on the 3d, 4th, 5th, and 6th days of Oct. 1832, at which much interesting and important business was transacted.

On the first day, an introductory address by Rev. Mr Bascom, of Augusta College, on "The Philosophy of Letters, reviewed as a question of moral interest," and the Rev. Timothy Alden was appointed Chairman, and O. L. Leonard, Esq. of Frankfort, Ky. Secretary of the Convention. Several Committees on important subjects, were also appointed. In the evening a lecture was delivered by Mr M. Butler, of Louisville, on "The Qualifications of Teachers."

On the second day of the Convention, lectures were delivered as follows: on "Physical Science in general," by Rev. E. Slack; on "The Study and Nature of the Ancient Languages," by Mr A. Kinmont; on "The History of Mathematical Science," by Mr F. E. Goddard, Louisville; and on the "importance of preserving the purity and innocence of the infant mind, and of erecting thereon a thorough and liberal Education."

On the third day, Mr Thos. Maylin delivered an address on "The Nature and Objects of Education;" Mr Robert Munford on "The Duties of Parents and Trustees;" and by Mr C. Bradford on "The Modern Languages."

During this day and the following, the name of the Western Institute was changed to that of "The Western Literary Institute, and College of Professional Teachers." The former Constitution was therefore revised, and new officers appointed.

The Committee appointed to select and recommend subjects for standing Committees, submitted for consideration the following, which were subsequently adopted by the Convention.

For *Common Schools.* 1. What branches of instruction ought the

Common School system to embrace? 2. Are there defects in Common Schools? If any, what are they, and how may they be remedied? 3. What are the duties of Trustees and Examiners of Common Schools? 4. What plan of building is best adapted for Common Schools?

For *Academies and High Schools.* 1. What course of English and Classical instruction ought schools of this class to embrace? 2. In whose hand should the Governmental power be vested? *For Female Schools.* 3. What course of discipline and instruction is best adapted to female schools? 4. Should any portion of their time be devoted to domestic Economy?

For *Colleges and Universities.* 1. What course of instruction is best adapted to the present wants of society? 2. Can the monitorial system be introduced with advantage into schools of this class? 3. What system of discipline is best adapted to the Government of Colleges? 4. What time may be profitably devoted to the ancient languages, in a College course?

We also learn that this second number of the Academic Pioneer, from which we have derived the foregoing facts, "is issued as the harbinger, or, as its name indicates, the *pioneer*, of an uninterrupted series, in hopes of extending its influence for many years, and over a widely spread and enlightened people."

Its grand objects are "to invite public attention still more particularly to the subject of Education — to endeavor to point out the errors that may exist in the present system of education, and discard them, — to seek after and to recommend to teachers, and the community generally, whatever improvements may be useful and commendable in the various departments of learning."

Ontario County Association of Teachers.

The Annual meeting of this Association was held at Canandaigua on the 9th of January. From thirty to forty Teachers were present, and a considerable part of the time was spent in hearing verbal and written reports of teachers, in which much interesting and important information was communicated; and in suggesting plans for the improvement of schools. A Committee was also appointed to prepare a Circular to be sent to every teacher of a district school throughout the county; which was subsequently prepared. A Committee was also directed to prepare an Address to Teachers and friends of Common Schools generally, to be delivered to them at an adjourned meeting of the Association which was to have been held on the 2d of February.

The Circular, above mentioned, had for its principal object to elicit written answers from the Teachers to the following questions: which answers were to have been given on the 2d of February, at the aforesaid meeting, to which all the teachers in the county were particularly invited to attend.

1. In what town and district is your school-house located?
2. What is its size? What the length, breadth and height of your school-room?
3. In what state are the desks and seats, and are they conveniently arranged?
4. What conveniences for warming it?
5. What time has been lost for want of fuel?
6. Are there outhouses of any kind?
7. What is the number of regular scholars?
8. What branches of learning are taught?

9. Do you make use of any apparatus for illustrating particular branches, and if so, what apparatus?
10. What books are used in the different classes? [Give a complete list of all the books used in the school.]
11. Have parents and instructors visited your school often?
12. Is there a Lyceum organized in the town?
13. Do teachers ever meet for mutual improvement?
14. Are parents generally interested in the success of the school?
15. What is the state of morals in the district?
16. What publications, relative to education, are taken by the inhabitants?
17. Are there divisions of any kind among the inhabitants, which affect the usefulness of the school?
18. Are scholars required to write compositions?
19. Are evening schools taught?
20. What punishments are used in the school?

We learn that the meeting on the 2d of February, was attended by teachers from every town in the county but one; that the whole number present, was about sixty; and that a third meeting was to have been held on the 23d instant, at the same place. All this evinces an increasing attention to Common Schools, in that part of the State. A late Geneva Gazette also contains the "Address to the Teachers and Patrons of Common Schools," above referred to. We are reluctantly obliged, for the present, to defer giving an account of this interesting document, as well as of the other proceedings of the Convention.

Southwark Institute.

An Association of journeymen and apprentices, has recently been formed in Southwark (Philadelphia) with a view to the moral and intellectual improvement of themselves and the hundreds of others in that district, whom they mean to enlist in the same object. The number of members is already from two to three hundred. "They have secured the services of several gentlemen, one evening in a week, in giving them simplified scientific lectures," and the lectures, thus far, are well attended. They propose also to form a Library, and establish in connection with it a reading-room.

Manual Labor in connection with Study.

The Manual Labor Academy, in Maury County, Tennessee, is located thirty miles south of Nashville. The country is fertile and healthy, and occupied by industrious and moral inhabitants. It has considerable funds, furnished by the liberality of various individuals from several of the middle and southern states; and an excellent farm of 309 acres.

The Institution is new, and the Manual Labor department has but recently been brought into full operation, although the number of students during some of the recent sessions has risen to 80. A trial of the laboring plan was made last Summer on a small scale, and was attended with complete success: both in a pecuniary point of view, and in reference to health. But during the ensuing season (1833) the students will be required to labor two hours a day five days in each week, and one on Saturday; and provision will also be made for allowing those students to labor still more, whose limited means may require it. The farm is to be stocked, and furnished with proper implements. Should mechanical as well as agricultural labor be introduced, they have materials in abundance, on the farm.

There appear to be two departments of the Seminary, a principal school and a preparatory one. In the preparatory school the teachers are expected to remain with the students under their care during the day, and to lodge in the room with them during the night, that they may have them constantly under their inspection. In the principal department the students will be permitted to study at their own rooms, but these are to be frequently visited by the professors.

The funds of the academy have been furnished by individuals from five or six different states. The students have come from seven or eight States; and belong to six different religious denominations. This evinces a catholic spirit and promises success.

The officers of the Institution are a President, who is Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy and Rhetoric; a Vice President, who is Professor of the Latin, Greek and Hebrew Languages; a Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy; an assistant Teacher in the Mathematics and Languages; a Teacher in the Preparatory Department, and a gentleman who acts as Steward, Treasurer, and Farmer. A Professor of Chemistry, Botany, and Mineralogy, and a Teacher of Modern Languages are also contemplated.

We see nothing very peculiar in the course of study pursued. It is thorough, and in the principal department, occupies four years.

The Ohio Baptist Education Society have a farm about one mile from the town of Granville, Ohio, connected with a Literary Institution. The number of students is about sixty. It is intended that those young men who feel disposed, shall spend a part of every day in manual labor, which, without interfering with their progress in study, will preserve their health, and defray a part of their expenses. The course of instruction in the Literary department, is designed to prepare young men for practical life, or for the business of instructors. To these is added, a Theological department, for the preparation of young men for the ministry in the Baptist Church.

The *Episcopal Manual Labor School*, under the care of the Episcopal Education Society, Bristol, Penn. has a very valuable farm, with ample buildings on it.

From the Western Recorder, of December last, we learn, that facilities are about to be afforded for manual labor in connection with study, at the *Stockbridge Academy*, in Madison county, New-York. A mechanic shop was to have been ready for the accommodation of forty young men, in January last. By laboring three hours a day, it was supposed each student would soon be able to earn enough to pay for his board and tuition. The establishment is respectable, and the location healthy, and favorable to the morals of the young.

Pamphlets on Education.

(1.) Letters on Popular Education, addressed to the People of North-Carolina. (2.) An Address delivered before the North-Carolina Institute of Education, at their Annual Meeting, January 20, 1832. By Alfred Moore, Esq. After which, the following Lectures were delivered: A Lecture on Elocution, particularly with reference to the Art of Reading. By Henry S. Ellenwood, Esq. 3. A Lecture on the Imperfections of our Primary Schools, and the best method of correcting them. By William Hooper, Professor of Ancient Languages in the University.

The first of these is something more than a mere pamphlet. It consists of a series of eleven letters, first published in the Raleigh Register, two or three years ago, by J. Caldwell, President of the University of North-Carolina. The object of the writer was to arouse the public attention to the subject of Education, and especially to the importance of improving the methods of instruction in primary schools. Appended to these, are several valuable documents on Education; among which, are improved plans for monitorial instruction, and an account of

the Primary School in Cheshire, Conn., with plans of improved school-houses, &c: the whole comprising more than 100 octavo pages. The letters of President Caldwell are sound, practical, and heart-stirring; and could not have failed to produce effect. Indeed, from a comparison of dates, we are inclined to think that, by preparing the public mind, they must have led the way to the formation of that Association for the Improvement of Education, at one of whose annual meetings the "Address and Lectures" were delivered.

The occasion which called forth these addresses, affords a cheering indication that an impulse has been given to the cause of education in that State, which will result in great and permanent good; for we fully accord in a sentiment which Mr Moore has attributed to Colbert, that "there never was an association of intelligent men, (unless they had *factious* designs,) without some good resulting from it." From a hasty examination of the character and contents of the addresses, we find much—very much—to approve; and, in one of them, a little which we regard as of doubtful utility. There is abundant evidence that their authors have imbibed much of the spirit of improvement; and while we cannot accord with them in all their opinions on education, nor approve of the indiscriminate and not very delicate censures sometimes passed on individuals and classes of men, we cannot but hope that an impulse will be given to public opinion on this important subject.

Schools in Mississippi.

A writer in the Natchez Journal calculates, that there are between 7000 and 8000 children in that State, of a suitable age to attend common schools, who receive little or no instruction; while there are sections of land in each township, allowed by Congress for the support of schools, amounting to 800,000 acres in the whole, and which he thinks might be sold for $2,000,000.

American School Agent's Society.

A meeting of this Society is to be commenced at the Teachers' Seminary, in Andover, on the 27th of the present month, and continue about two weeks. We are pleased to learn, that provision is made for a large number of lectures on important and practical subjects,—in addition to which, daily meetings will be held, for the purpose of discussion and inquiry. Besides an Introductory Lecture, three lectures are proposed on the condition, wants, and means of improvement of the Southern and Western parts of the Union; two on Circuit Schools, their necessity and practical utility, &c; six on the Art of Teaching; two on each of the following subjects: Apparatus, Geology, Chemistry, Direction of Studies and appropriate branches to be pursued in Common Schools. One lecture is also to be given on each of the following branches, accompanied in most instances by experiments, or illustrated by diagrams, specimens, &c, viz: Natural History, Natural Philosophy, Electricity, Astronomy, Magnetism, and the Carstairian system of writing. Besides these, provision is made for additional lectures, on other subjects, should it be thought desirable at the time.

Self Education.

We have been highly interested in perusing in the "Tuscaloosa Inquirer," an address by Dr Woods, President of the University of Alabama, delivered at its first Commencement, Dec. 19, 1832.

In addressing the students generally, he urges them, 1st, To "aspire to eminence in knowledge;" 2d, "To keep aloof from all the distractions of party politics;" 3d, To form a just estimate of their own attainments and capacities; 4th, To have regard to the moral state of their hearts; and 5th, With all their gettings to "get moral worth."

In laboring to persuade his hearers to aspire to eminence in knowledge, Dr Woods urges, with much force, the necessity of steady, persevering, untiring efforts, and insists that "labor is the price which our Creator requires us to pay for every earthly good." We do not remember to have seen more cogent reasons adduced for self-instruction, than in the following paragraphs.

"I do not regard any young gentleman as having taken the first step in the road to an honorable eminence who has not ceased to rely upon his friends, and his wealth, and every other factitious aid for success, and who has not thrown himself entirely upon the energies of his own mind. His whole soul must be imbued with the conviction that his earthly destiny is, under God, in his own hands; — that he is to be what he makes himself, or, be assured, he never will be anything worthy of imitation.

"This, young gentlemen, is the secret of the success of our countryman, Franklin, and of many other men who have not enjoyed the advantages of public education with which you are favored. They soon learned that first lesson of all true greatness, a reliance upon one's own powers and the blessing of God. It was their self-education on which they rose to eminence. And permit me to tell you that every well-educated man, is, in a greater or less degree, a self-educated man. Seminaries of learning are useful, because in them only can the intellectual treasures of past ages and of the present generation, be collected together and spread out before the lovers of knowledge. Seminaries of learning are useful, because in them are gathered youth of noble aspirations; and by their constant intercourse and collision in the same lofty pursuits, their minds become polished, invigorated, and stimulated to higher and still higher attainments.

"Instructors are useful, because they may, by a judicious direction of your studies, prevent a useless expenditure of your time and energies. They may propose subjects for your investigation. They may point you the way to eminence. They may *aid* you in the great work of training and disciplining your mental powers: — but after all, that work must be *yours*. And yours will be the rich reward."

Female College at Bogota.

In our number for January, we inserted an article from the Government Gazette of Bogota, on the subject of a Female College. We have since been favored with a copy of the decree of the Executive power of New Grenada, in which we find the following regulations for this novel and interesting institution.

The decree is prefaced by a declaration, that "It is a duty of government to promote the education of females, who necessarily exercise a great deal of influence upon our social happiness."

The College is to be under the care of a Directress, appointed by the Executive, on the nomination of the Governor of Bogota, and subject to his inspection. Five Professors are to be appointed — one of reading, writing and arithmetic; one of Spanish and French grammar; one of drawing, and labors appropriate to the sex; one of the principles of morality, religion, urbanity and domestic economy; and one of the elements of music, vocal and instrumental.

The Government is allowed to withdraw these professorships, and establish others of the higher branches, as circumstances may require. The professorships may be filled by males or females, the latter being preferred under similar circumstances. Five scholarships are founded for the gratuitous education of pupils. The funds are derived from the property of suppressed convents, and from a legacy left for this purpose. The only requisites for admission, are a good character and good health, between the ages of five and fourteen years.

We need not express the pleasure we feel at this important step in a country so much in need of institutions for education. We rejoice that they have set us an example so well worthy of imitation; and we hope that the Governments of our own happy country will not always consider, as unworthy of their notice, those who are to rear and educate their future citizens.

Infant School Society in Philadelphia.

On the 17th of April, 1828, the "Infant School Society of the Northern Liberties and Kensington," (Philadelphia,) was organized. The Board of Managers opened their first school with twenty-one scholars. In a few months, the number was increased to 100. In 1832, the fourth annual report of the Managers announced seven schools, — four of them Charity, and three o them Pay Schools. In the Charity Schools, 922 children have been instructed during the past year;

in the Pay Schools, the number has been smaller. Since the formation of the Society, the schools have instructed between 4000 and 5000 children. Many of these pupils are the children of parents who are poor and grossly ignorant, some of them unable to read; and not a few of them intemperate.

These schools have thus far been sustained entirely by private contributions. The teachers are all females, and the Board of Managers consists of twenty-five ladies. The objects of their care have been infants, from two to five or six years of age, many of whom were clothed by the benevolent managers, before they were introduced to their respective teachers. To secure these poor children only for a few hours in each day, from the contagion of evil influence, were, of itself, a noble act of charity—to give them intellectual instruction, is a work still nobler. Yet we hope they will be so conducted as to invigorate their bodies, develope their minds, and, above all, to cultivate their hearts.

Philadelphia Institute.

From the Second Annual Report of this Institution, we learn that it is still in a flourishing condition. During the past year, the number of members has increased from 243 to 390. The Library now numbers 751 volumes. They receive sixteen weekly and daily papers, and eight monthly and quarterly periodicals.

The tax of fifty cents on each member has been abolished, and nothing is now required of the members but suitable age, and respect to the rules of the Reading and Lecture rooms. No such infraction of the rules has yet occurred, as to make it necessary to expel a member. The moral and religious lectures, both on the Sabbath and during week days, have, during the past year, been sustained by the effort and expense of the Board of Directors, and have been well attended.

Boston Academy of Music.

At the commencement of our editorial labors, we urged upon our readers the importance of vocal music, as a branch of education, on account of its happy influence both on the body and the mind; and gave some account of the simple method of instruction devised in Switzerland. We are gratified in being able to announce, that an association has been formed in Boston, by a number of gentlemen who have long been interested in the subject, for the purpose of providing instruction in singing on this plan; and of extending and improving the taste for social and sacred music. With these views, they have engaged as their professor Mr Lowell Mason, late President of the Handel and Haydn Society, whose science and skill, as a musician and teacher, are well known.

Mr. Mason has occupied himself, for some time past, in the intervals allowed by his business, in giving instruction to children gratuitously; and his Juvenile Concerts have excited deep interest in all who heard them. He has now consented, at the solicitation of the Academy, to devote his whole time to this object. Several schools are in operation; and he is expected, as soon as the requisite preparation can be made, to commence lessons in private schools, to organize other special schools for children, to open a class for teachers, who wish to learn the improved method of instruction, and to prepare such elementary books as may aid in their introduction into our schools generally. We need not pledge anew, our good wishes and best efforts for the execution of these plans.

We are gratified to learn, that the success of schools instructed according to the Pestalozzian system, by Mr Ives of Philadelphia, has been complete; and also to find, that other gentlemen in this city, are turning their attention to the same objects.

Engravings of Animals.

We have been much gratified to receive the four first of a series of Engravings of Animals, and now in the course of publication by the American Sunday School Union. They are drawn with great truth and spirit, and finely executed; and are accompanied by descriptions and illustrations in a large type, to be exhibited to a class Their durability is secured by putting them on pasteboard. We have seen nothing so well adapted to the object; and think they deserve a place in every school. We only regret that the proportionate size of the animal cannot be preserved. The figure of a man in connection with every such drawing, would aid in forming correct ideas on this point.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

APRIL, 1833.

Art. I. — Prize Essay on Teaching Penmanship.

An Essay on the Teaching of Penmanship, presented to the American Institute of Instruction,

By B. B. Foster,

Teacher of Writing in the Albany Academy and author of "Practical Penmanship."

Section I. — Preliminary Remarks.

I shall endeavor, in this Essay to point out, in a plain manner the most effectual mode of teaching the art of Writing. The method pursued, will be to lay down, in their natural succession, the rules which experience and reason have approved as the best for communicating the art, from its first elements to the attainment of the greatest elegance and expedition; and such practical remarks will be interspersed, as may incidentally occur.

Two things are essential to skill in this art. — First, *A knowledge of the forms and proportions of the letters*; Second, *The power of executing these letters on paper.*

It must be apparent, on the slightest examination of the subject that both the above requisites are indispensable to make a good penman. If a person be deficient in the *first*, although he may possess inimitable ease and freedom in the use of the pen, his performance will displease, from its want of just proportion and symmetry of parts. If he is wanting in the *second*, however correct the form of each particular letter, there will be no freedom or grace in the general aspect of his writing.

It would be highly advantageous to learners if they could be first thoroughly instructed in the forms and proportions of the letters, before undertaking to execute them. They would then have but one thing to learn at a time; whereas, they are now embarrassed with all the niceties of form and proportion, at the same moment when they find their whole power of attention little enough to encounter all the difficulties of a correct posture, and manner of holding the pen, and the other requisites for good execution. Yet with the very young, a theoretic knowledge is too often no knowledge at all, and it is therefore generally found expedient from the outset, to suffer the pupil to learn the form of each letter, by making it with a pen. Thus, both the requisites above mentioned, are acquired simultaneously. Admitting this to be a necessary evil, the principal objects of attention arrange themselves in the following order:

I. *The position of the body.*
II. *The position of the paper.*
III. *The manner of holding the pen.*
IV. *The form of the letters.*
V. *The movements by which the letters are executed.*

I. Great attention should be paid to the position of the body. This, and the second and third of the objects just enumerated, may to some appear unimportant, but they are far from being so. They cannot be too carefully attended to, as the neglect of either of them will retard the progress of the pupil, and in the end, prove a serious obstacle to his acquisition of a free and elegant current hand, which, of course, is his ultimate object. If, in these particulars, he be suffered to begin with wrong habits, they will grow upon him, and he will not afterwards be able to shake them off without much pains and trouble. It is much easier for him to form correct habits in the beginning, than, in later life, to divest himself of bad ones. I would earnestly press the remark on the consideration of every one who honors these pages with a perusal, that very much of the pupil's success depends upon attention to seemingly minute points, when *first beginning* to write. Deviations from a judicious course commenced at that period, are apt to be followed by the worst consequences, and often, the evil done is without remedy, from the fixedness of the habit.

The pupil should sit in an easy, upright posture. His seat should be near the desk, so that he may not be obliged to reach over, and the desk should not be quite so high as the level of his elbow when his arm is drawn close to his side. Thus he will escape all the evils attendant upon a distorted position; which are, first, discomfort and constraint, then pain, and lastly, disease. For when, as is too often the case, the head is thrown forward, and the chest contracted, and this posture becomes habitual, it is unquestionably the source — es-

pecially with those who write much, — of many diseases of the lungs, which not seldom terminate fatally. A more natural posture would not only be more healthy, but would give greater freedom in the management of the pen. The body should bend a little forward, but should by no means press against the desk. The left side should be brought near the desk, the feet placed obliquely, in the same direction with the slant of the writing, and the weight of the body supported by the left arm, so far as necessary to be supported by either. The right arm should rest *lightly* on the desk near the elbow, and be kept three or four inches from the body. The position just described gives the body a firm attitude, affords the right arm an easy play, and allows it to move with perfect liberty.

II. The paper should be placed directly in front of the right arm, and parallel with the edge of the desk. This is recommended not only by my own uniform experience, but by the opinion of the most judicious writers.

III. The next thing to be attended to is the manner of holding the pen. This is a matter of the first importance. The teacher should not suffer the least inaccuracy in this respect to escape notice and correction. For although it is very laborious, and requires great patience, to regulate the position, paper, pen, &c. as often as is necessary, yet the correct method in all these matters must be acquired before the pupil can ever attain to any excellence in the art. The teacher should be constantly at the pupil's elbow, for if left to practise alone, he will be liable to continual error, and there is no limit to the mischiefs flowing from a wrong beginning. The pen should be gently held, not tightly grasped, between the thumb, and first and second fingers. *Little* children should keep the second finger nearly half an inch from the point of the pen, but pupils of ten years old and upwards, about one inch from the point. The hand may be supported on the top of the little finger, keeping the one next to it bent inwards; or if the pupil prefers, it may be supported on the ends of the third and fourth fingers, inclined towards the palm of the hand. In either of these positions a free, unfettered hand writing may be acquired. There is a trifling rule, which if attended to, would keep the pen in its right position, viz. that the top of the pen should always point to the right shoulder.

IV. The next object is, to gain a familiarity with the forms and proportions of the letters. The general convenience which teachers find, or imagine, in beginning their instructions on this head, at the very same time when they first put a pen into the hand of the pupil, induce me in the foregoing remarks to concede that the use of the pen and the forms of the letters might be taught together. In my humble opinion, they would more thoroughly, and more easily be learned separately. I am far from recommending that the

forms of the letters should be taught by mere verbal instruction. But every person of observation must have remarked, that almost every child, before he is brought to a desk, in order to be taught to write, amuses himself with making pictures, or more properly scrawling figures with such materials as he can lay his hands on. This natural inclination requires only to be properly directed, and the shapeless figures may be made to assume proportion and symmetry. Let the pupil continue to use the slate and pencil, or paper and lead pencil, to which he has been accustomed to resort for childish diversion; or, if more convenient, let him be provided with a black board and chalk. The teacher should then exhibit the forms of the letters by practical exemplifications, on a large black board, placed in full view of the class. The pupil should be requested to inspect each letter with care, and then to imitate it as nearly as possible, with the materials before mentioned.

The letter *o*, will probably be found the most convenient for reference, as to height and proportion; thus, the height of the *n* is the same as that of the *o*, and the distance between its principal strokes is the width of the *o*, &c. These proportions should be well impressed on the pupil's mind, by examination with question and answer, following his imitations of each letter. The same method may be extended from the simple elementary characters to their various combinations, and will, I think, be found the shortest and most effectual method of impressing the pupil with correct ideas of the forms and proportions of the letters.

Any teacher, who pleases, may, of course, allow his pupil to use the pen in the process above described; but I should myself advise not to use it yet. It may naturally be asked, since penmanship is to be taught, why not give the pupil a pen from the first? The answer is ready, — that it is desirable for a child to have its whole attention confined to a single object at a time. If we give a pen to the young pupil at his first lesson, his attention is alternately occupied by two objects, each of which is new, and consequently difficult to him, — the manner of holding his pen, and the form of the letters. The distraction of mind which follows this constrained attention to two things at once, is apt to produce the ill effect, that neither is learned well or easily; and this is entirely prevented by simply teaching one thing at a time.

First, therefore, let the pupil learn the forms of all the letters by using any of the materials mentioned above; and afterwards, when these are perfectly familiar, let him take a pen, and he will then have nothing to do, but to learn the use of that new instrument. These observations, it will at once be perceived, apply only to beginners. Those who have been accustomed to the use of the pen, may with propriety continue to use it, in improving the forms of their letters.

Particular directions as to each letter, can only be given by the teacher, in practical lessons. The general rules under this head, which should be continually urged upon the pupil's attention, are the following:

1. That his strokes be made straight.
2. That they be parallel.
3. At equal distances.
4. With equal proportions.

Even these are too abstract for young beginners, without practical illustration; with the aid of that, a judicious teacher may make them intelligible to very young children.

V. The principal movements by which the letters are executed are three. Although they do not come fully into use, with all their combinations, *until the pupil attempts* CURRENT HAND WRITING, yet he should from the beginning be made acquainted with them, and thus be enabled to call them into use, as soon as the proper occasion arises.

1. The first movement is that of the whole arm. It may be either perpendicular or lateral. When perpendicular, it accustoms the pupil to preserve the correct position of the hand and pen, and to move his arm lightly on the table. When lateral, it gives great expertness and rapidity of execution.

2. The second movement is that of the fore-arm, without a separate movement of the fingers. It is a simultaneous, connected movement of the hand and fore-arm; the muscles of the under part of the arm playing, but not sliding on the table; the nails of the third and fourth fingers gliding on the paper; the wrist elevated a little, not exceeding an inch. By means of the extending and contracting power of the muscles of the fore-arm, without changing its place on the table, a remarkably free, bold, and commanding movement is obtained.

3. The third and least movement is that of the fingers, and is so simple as to require no particular description.

The *first combination* of the movements is the addition of the movement of the fingers to that of the whole arm. While the wrist should never, either in this or any of the movements or combinations, touch the table, the arm should never in any of them be raised from it. Observing these directions, the fingers cannot be too freely used.

The *second combination* is the addition of the movement of the fingers to that of the fore-arm. In this combination, the fore-arm rests on the edge of the table, near the elbow. The difference between this combination and the first is, that in the first, the whole arm moves upon the table, the elbow regularly following and nearly coinciding with the movement of the hand; but in the second,

the fore arm, although it moves upon the table, remains stationary near the elbow. In writing by the second movement, or by the second combination, the learner must slide his arm, laterally along the table, at convenient distances, so that his hand and elbow will always be in a line with the place where the word is to be written, and parallel with the sides of the paper. At each remove, he will again rest his fore-arm on the edge of the table, near the elbow, and write the next word or words, as far as convenient; and so on to the end of the line.

The *third combination*, is the union of the first and second, not simultaneously, but in succession.

The first and third movements are all which are essential to the beginner, because they are the only ones requisite in the careful and deliberate writing of large hand. The introduction of the second movement and its combinations to the notice of teachers of this art has been brought about by the zeal and ingenuity of Mr Joseph Carstairs, of London, who deserves high credit for insisting on the importance of acquiring, from the first, the mastery of these combined movements. By obtaining such a mastery, the most valuable advantages are secured. The practice of frequently lifting the pen, which is incompatible with bold and free writing, is avoided. Strength and steadiness of hand are acquired. The great fault of turning the hand over to the right, and jerking it from point to point, to keep pace with the progress of the writing, — which may be considered as a concentration of all the vices of the common system of teaching, — is entirely eradicated; and in place of it, uniformity, grace, boldness and rapidity are obtained. The arm moves along insensibly and without effort, by the very act of forming the letters.

Although great perseverance is necessary to acquire these movements thoroughly, yet there are powerful encouragements to effort and patience. For success is certain, and the pupil sees it; and there is besides, a bewitching allurement in practising the exercises, growing out of his plain perception that at every step he is accomplishing great things, in the acquirement of power, in eradicating vicious habits, and in making steady and permanent advances, towards becoming an expert and elegant penman. In connection with what has been said on the subject of movement, the following rules should be carefully inculcated upon the pupil.

First. That he should be able to move the hand and arm, in every direction with equal facility.

Second. That an habitual movement of the hand and arm should be acquired, equally applicable to every letter of the alphabet, and producing by its own tendency, the same inclination of the letters and the same distance between them.

Third. That the pressure of the pen on the paper should be light and easy, to promote uniformity, both in motion and in the general aspect of the writing. It will be observed, however, that the above rules are mainly applicable to expeditious *current hand writing*.

This subject of the mechanical movements necessary to execute every piece of writing is the most important branch of the art. A man may have a correct taste and judgment in writing, or in any other art, without being skilful in the practical exercise of the same art; but the power of executing well, almost necessarily presupposes a just idea of the thing to be executed. The attempt to execute a piece of writing, naturally leads the mind to reflect on that which the hand executes, that is, the forms and proportions of the letters. So that it is plain, that one may have a knowledge of the forms of the letters, and yet be deficient in the power to execute them; while on the contrary, one is not likely to have what is usually termed a *command of hand*, — a power to execute well — without combining with it a correct idea of the forms of the letters. Execution, then, ought much rather to be the object of the teacher's attention than the mere forms of the letters. The growing taste of a pupil will gradually correct the imperfect, awkward, or fantastic forms he may have given his letters; but it is not so easy to acquire a masterly command of hand by solitary practice, where the foundation was not well laid, in the acquisition of the easiest and most natural movements of the hand and arm. Nor can it be doubted, that this is a principal reason why many continue through their whole lives to write very badly, notwithstanding that they have a great deal of writing to do.

Section II. — Large Hand.

The pupil having been fully instructed in regard to the posture of his body, the position of his paper, the manner of holding his pen, the forms and proportions of the letters, and the movements by which they are to be executed, may now begin to practise what he has been taught. The copy-book for large hand should be ruled with horizontal lines $\frac{3}{10}$ of an inch apart, and oblique lines about $\frac{4}{10}$ of an inch apart, forming an angle of 56 degrees with the horizontal lines. The pupil should commence with making straight strokes, and practise them till he can hold the pen correctly and execute them easily. The correct formation of this first stroke, is of more importance than is usually imagined. The simplest things have their difficulties; and the circle drawn by Appelles, equally displayed the wonderful skill of the master, as the finely chiselled foliage of the Corinthian Capital. The letter

i, written $\frac{8}{10}$ of an inch in height should be the second copy, and the first stroke of the *m* the third copy. The last stroke of the *m* should be the fourth copy, and the same stroke doubled, the fifth copy. These preliminary exercises contain the most important elements of English hand-writing. From them, together with the *o*, singly or combined, a majority of the letters of the alphabet may be formed. They must therefore be practised with the copies before the learner, till they become perfectly familiar. The pupil should write two or three pages of one copy before beginning another, but not without having each line carefully corrected. Every letter should be examined, its errors pointed out, and corrections made by the teacher.

The practice of writing straight strokes alternately with other copies, has a very good effect. It affords the pupil a variety which prevents him from soon becoming weary, and at the same time it disciplines his fingers and hand, and enables him to form the short letters with ease and correctness.

Let the pupil learn to "make haste slowly." Instead of being indulged in that prurient desire which children so often display, of advancing to something new, before they have half mastered the old, they should not be suffered to begin on a new letter, till they can execute the previous exercises tolerably well. They should be led by slow and sure gradations, from the simplest to the more complicated characters.

As to the size of the writing, I cannot too strongly recommend, that the pupil should make the elementary characters very large at first; they should be written frequently from one to two inches in height. As this length can only be reached by moving the arm, the smallest children will find no greater difficulty than grown persons in making the characters. I am convinced from the most decisive experiments, that nothing has a greater tendency to promote the speedy attainment of the art, than the practice here recommended. It strengthens the muscles of the fingers and hand, prevents all cramped and effeminate habits, gives great facility in executing all sizes of writing, and prepares the pupil to write a current hand with freedom and ease. It serves also to fix in the mind a just idea of the exact proportions of the several parts of the letters, at the same time that the pupil is insensibly obliged to move his arm up and down in forming them, as it will be impossible, from their length, that he should make them by resting the hand and arm, and moving the fingers alone. Thus the arm is gradually habituated to a steady and continued movement, which is perhaps the greatest accomplishment of a penman.

When the pupil has acquired the ability to write the large text hand, with ease and correctness, he should commence the study of

the capital letters. Practice upon these will give additional freedom to his movements, improve his taste and accelerate his general proficiency in the art. He should write several copies of each letter, till he can make them not only with accuracy, but with a considerable degree of neatness and taste. The pupil should next write an alphabetical set of copies, in large hand, though not of the extreme height above mentioned, beginning each word with a capital letter; and let this be continued, till he can make the turns similar to each other, all the joinings at their proper places, and all the letters of a uniform slope. Master and pupil will do well to recollect, that he who aims at writing small hand well, must perfect himself in large hand; for every man will be found to write small hand exactly as well as he can write large hand, and no better. Let not the pupil, therefore, think of attempting what is called "*fine hand*," till he can write handsome copies of the largest size. This accomplished, he may proceed to the writing of half-text, or medium hand, which, being well grounded in large hand, he will soon be able to execute neatly and correctly. He may then write, alternately, a page of half-text, and a page of small round hand, but should his writing become feeble and irregular by reducing it, let him return to the large text and capitals, which will speedily correct it. The large text hand, the half-text, and small round hand, are principally written by exactly the same movement, viz. the movement of the fingers. The capitals, however, and the letters of an inch or more in height, should be written by the combined movement of the arm and fingers. The movement of the fore arm, and its combinations, do not come into use till the pupil undertakes current hand writing. I add here a brief analysis of the course recommended in the foregoing remarks.

1. Practise the elements, separately, till they can be formed with ease and correctness.
2. Join them into letters, and practise upon each, till all the letters of the alphabet can be written with accuracy.
3. Write an alphabetical course of large hand words.
4. Write a page or more of each capital letter.
5. Write an alphabetical set of words in large hand, each beginning with a capital.
6. Go through a similar course with the half-text hand.
7. Write a page of half-text and small round hand alternately.

Section III.—Current Hand-Writing.

Thus far, the observations that have been made, have kept mainly in view the formation of a handsome large text hand, which I suppose the learner to have now accomplished. Yet it must always

be recollected, that however desirable it may be to write large hand well, it is not in itself an end, but only the means of attaining the real end of learning to write, viz. the acquisition of a quick and elegant *current hand*. One might be able to make out an invoice, with all the neatness and finish of a copperplate engraving; yet, if it took him a whole day to do it, the writer would be dismissed from the counting house as useless.

There are three qualities essential to fine penmanship; legibility, elegance and expedition. The first two are all that can be acquired in learning to write a large text; the last, which is no less indispensable than the others, must be the object of separate and particular instruction. The principal defect of the common systems of teaching the art of writing, is, that the instructor stops short of that which has just been stated to be its only end, the acquisition of quick or business hand-writing. It has been often maintained, that nothing but practice was necessary to give such a hand-writing, and that all instruction was superfluous. After being initiated into what may be called the "*slow stiff hands*," the pupil is accordingly dismissed from school, to acquire a business hand as he best may, by random efforts, or not at all. Mr Carstairs, of London, is entitled to the credit of practically demonstrating, that this view is entirely erroneous, and that expeditious and uniform writing is the sure result of certain mechanical movements of the arm, hand and fingers, which can be taught by the master, and imitated, and perfectly acquired by the pupil, and thus, a business hand attained at school.

It will be found, on observation, that almost every elegant and ready penman, often without being conscious of the fact, uses the fore-arm and arm, as much, and as readily, as the fingers, and the more so in proportion to the rapidity of his execution. The reason is obvious; the muscles of the arm being much stronger than those of the fingers and thumb, are not so soon wearied, and the movement that is the least fatiguing, is insensibly adopted, by one who is constantly practising the art. Besides, as the words proceed from left to right, it is evident that any one, who depends on the use of the fingers alone, without a simultaneous movement of the arm, or fore-arm, will be unable to write a word extending an inch or more upon the line, without having his hand gradually thrown over from left to right, in order to allow for the action of the pen upon the paper. The third and fourth fingers remaining fixed, while the other two are carrying the pen to the end of a long word, the hand and fingers are painfully cramped and strained. On finishing a word, moreover, the hand is jerked along, and the under fingers made to take up a new position. This they retain till the hand is gradually turned nearly or quite over, and the fingers that hold the pen, are again stretched as far in advance of the others as they can

bear, when a new jerk is given to the hand, and so on till the writing is finished.

Let any one, whose penmanship is very bad, observe his own mode of writing, and in nine cases out of ten, he will find that he bears the weight of his arm upon the wrist, and uses the two last fingers as a fixed prop. Thus his writing is uneven and crooked, and so long as he leans upon his wrist, how can it be otherwise? The radius of the circle of motion is very short, reaching only from the end of the third and fourth fingers, which are fixed, to the point of the pen. The centre of motion is changed every time he lifts his wrist, and his writing continually tends to take the form of successive segments of small circles; to prevent which, he is obliged to make constant efforts to keep a straight line, and thus wearies and pains his fingers. The root of the principal faults, in the common methods of teaching penmanship, seems, therefore, to be this: — *that the pupil is directed, or permitted, to rest the wrist, and generally, also the third and fourth fingers, and to execute the writing with the fingers alone.*

Some persons sensible of the difficulties just mentioned, and desirous to avoid them, take off the pen and move the hand at the end of every downward stroke; the effect is indeed to keep the writing tolerably straight and uniform, but it is destitute of a graceful and easy flow. Still worse, no one can write rapidly on this plan, and hence it can never be adopted by the man of business.

The only certain means of avoiding the difficulties above mentioned, and to gain a flowing, rapid hand, is to study and practise the *movements* by which quick writing is performed. These, with their combinations, have already been briefly described (p. 149) and three rules laid down (p. 150) embracing the principal objects of the several movements. To these rules a fourth must here be added, which was not inserted before, because of its exclusive application to current hand; *that the pen should not be taken off in any single word, and may be continued, if required, from one word to another through an entire page.* The reader is referred to what has been said above on this subject; but to obtain a good current hand, the pupil must not content himself with general rules, but must practically acquire a mastery of the movements and combinations described.

1. In the first place, the pupil must learn to use the pen freely in forming any letters by the movement of the arm alone, entirely independent of the movement of the fingers. To effect this, the *horizontal* copies which the pupil has hitherto used must be abandoned for a series of exercises* in perpendicular columns, and the

* For specimens of the exercises here recommended, the reader is referred to "*Foster's Development of the Carstairian System,*" plates 8, 9, 10, and 11.

whole of each column must be executed without lifting the pen. This enables the learner to preserve the proper position of the hand and pen, and compels him to keep the arm light and movable; and he may advance gradually from a single, easy letter to the longest and most difficult combinations, extending over a whole line, and yet performed solely by the movement of the arm.

2. The movement of the fore-arm is the next object of attention. To acquire this the learner must rest the arm at or near the elbow; then the muscles of the fore-arm are brought into play, and alternately extending and contracting themselves, they are gradually disciplined to the exactness and smoothness of penmanship, by exercises* in forming oblique and horizontal ovals, and afterwards, letters and words. The learner must begin by making ovals, continuing the pen on the paper, and going round repeatedly on the same outline, as quickly as possible, but with a uniform, equable movement. When the oval can be made with neatness and precision, the learner may try letters and short words. Each word must be written without lifting the pen, and care must be taken in writing them to preserve the same movement that produces the ovals; that is, as the pen moves on the paper, the under fingers must be kept in full play, and follow the same movement, so that if another pen were fixed to them, both pens would produce the same word at the same time. The horizontal ovals are well calculated to give the hand a free action from left to right, and from right to left. The oblique ovals will give a peculiar facility in executing the capital letters.

3. After great facility in the movements of the hand and fore-arm is acquired, the movement of the fingers is permitted. This is comparatively easy, from the great flexibility of the muscles of the fingers; so that in general it is only necessary to leave them at liberty, and they will be sure to come in aid of the hand, whenever their aid is required. It is therefore better that the use of the arm and fore-arm should be first taught; and till much facility is gained in using them, all use of the fingers in *Current Hand Writing*, should be postponed. Even when the fingers are allowed to be used they are not suffered to execute the whole writing, but only the upward and downward strokes of the letters, while the connecting hair lines are formed by the lateral movement of the arm or fore-arm. Thus, whenever the fingers are used, the writing is executed, not by a single, but by a combined movement, of the fingers and arm, or of the fingers and fore-arm.

To avoid all misapprehension on the head of the movements and their combinations, a clear understanding of which is indispensable

* See "Foster's Development," plates 12 and 13.

in acquiring an elegant business hand, a brief summary of them is here presented, with their appropriate exercises.

1. The *first movement* is that of the whole arm in all directions. To acquire it the learner should practise exercises in perpendicular columns, where letters or syllables are connected, from the top to the bottom of the page, by means of loops.

2. The *second movement* is the forward and backward, and also the oblique play of the fore-arm, while the arm rests lightly, near the elbow. The suitable exercises are the oblique and horizontal ovals.

3. The *third movement* is that of the thumb and fingers alone. Exercises proper to give this movement are all common sized large hand, formal small hand, and all studied writing, where great exactness is required in the forms of the letters.

The *first combination* is of the first and third movements, and may be practised in all sizes of writing.

The *second combination* is of the second and third movements. It may be used in all sizes of writing, not exceeding two inches in height, in free running hand and all quick writing.

The *third combination* employs all the movements, but in succession. The capitals may be executed by either of the movements or combinations, according to the fancy of the writer.

Having gone through with the practical process of teaching, I will close this essay with a few general observations. I remark in the first place, that the art of writing does not receive that attention in our country, which its usefulness merits. Although mainly a mechanical art, yet it is of such universal convenience and necessity, that it is hard to find a person so humble or so exalted as to be able to dispense with it. If then it must be learned, let it be learned thoroughly and systematically, for such a method will be at once the *cheapest, shortest, and most advantageous* to the learner. But in order to acquire the art in this manner, such teachers only must be employed as are in fact, as well as in profession, masters of their business. At present, I regret to say, such persons are rare. Every individual who undertakes to teach a common school, at once becomes likewise a teacher of writing, and the consequence naturally follows which might be expected, that a very small proportion of the youth who leave our schools are able to write a tolerable hand. To remedy this evil we should "begin at the beginning," and teach the teachers. Schools for this purpose should be established in our principal cities, and they would be attended with manifold advantages. Among these are — that the art would be thoroughly, not superficially taught; that such improvements as the taste and intelligence of the age suggest from time to time, would be adopted after due scrutiny; and that the country would be saved from much waste of time and money, which

are now bestowed on itinerant and empirical pretenders, who, marvellous to relate, undertake to teach the art "to persons of all ages, in six or a dozen easy lessons!!"

When the age and circumstances of the pupils will admit of it, it would be found most advantageous, that they should learn to write in a school where that branch alone is taught. In our common schools, it is so apt to be undervalued in comparison with other branches, with which the teachers are, perhaps, better acquainted, that the pupil soon slights it as much as his master. It would be restored to its proper importance, if taught by itself. If this cannot be, a particular hour shou'd be set apart for writing, in which the attention of all should be exclusively devoted to it. Previous to the arrival of the hour, the copy books should be ruled, the pens prepared, and everything in readiness for proceeding uninterruptedly with the writing. And I would here suggest, that it is but a miserable economy which furnishes pupils with the inferior paper and quills that are so often to be found in our schools. The materials for writing should be of good quality; else the time of master and pupil are wasted in preparing pens that were never fit to write with, and the learner is discouraged with the unsightly appearance of his best efforts, on rough and coarse paper. The time occupied should not exceed an hour at once, particularly with very young pupils; otherwise, their attention and patience are exhausted. Above all, every line should be examined and corrected by the teacher, before the next is written, so that the errors of one may be amended in the next. If a stroke is crooked, a line should be drawn straight through it with a pencil, that the pupil may more plainly *see* the deformity. If a letter is improperly shaped, let the same letter be written in pencil over his, to show him the difference. If the tops or tails of his letters are unequal in length, let a horizontal line be drawn through them, to show that inequality. If one letter is wider than another, or any letters are unequal in distance from each other, let them be measured, that he may observe the disproportion. In the next line he writes, let him be requested to correct these, and similar errors. If any letter is made particularly ill, let him write a line or two of *that letter* only, till he can form it correctly. Each pupil in the class, should be visited in rotation, and his writing carefully examined, before he is allowed to proceed with a second line; otherwise he will go on heaping error upon error, till his faults have become habitual, perhaps beyond remedy. Nothing can be more pernicious than the custom that prevails, in too many schools, of giving the pupil a copy, and allowing him to write a page of it without examination, and, indeed, without the superintendence of the teacher, except, perhaps, an occasional recommendation to look at his copy, or to "mind his writing."

It will doubtless be said in excuse of many industrious and conscientious teachers, that they are aware of the mischiefs resulting from an omission to scrutinize each line and word that is written, but that they have not the time; they have thirty, forty, or fifty pupils, and while attending to one, a dozen are idle and impatient. This is indeed a serious evil. For so close and assiduous is the attention which the instructor ought to be able to bestow upon his pupils, at least in their first efforts in the art, that he can hardly find time to teach more than *six* in the same hour, with the greatest industry. When they are a little further advanced in the art, he could easily attend to a few more, but ought not, if it can be avoided, to undertake a class of more than twenty at one time. As, however, comparatively few pupils can afford to pay a teacher who would confine himself to a very small number, and the great majority of pupils attend public institutions, or free schools, where fifty or more may have but one teacher, I earnestly recommend to instructors to adopt the following plan. Let the teacher select a number of his more advanced pupils, and instruct them particularly and carefully in all the minutiæ of the art, till they are sufficiently expert to assist as monitors. Let him, then, divide his school into classes of six pupils each, and assign a monitor to each class. It should be the duty of the monitor to correct every error with a pencil, and give all such assistance as might be required, which the limited number of each class would easily enable him to do. This arrangement would be as advantageous for the monitors as to be employed in writing copies; and at the same time it would leave the teacher free to go from class to class, and see that the monitors did their duty, and that all the school were constantly employed in the manner best suited to their respective ages and capacities. For after all, steady and well directed application, is, in the art of writing, as in every other art, the master key to success.

What Horace said to the poet, I repeat to the penman—"*Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ.*"—"Practice your hand by day, and eke by night."

Art. II.—Lecture on Teaching Grammar and Composition.

Delivered before the American Institute of Instruction.

By Asa Rand.

As the basis of all the remarks which I have to make upon Grammar, I lay down this position:—that every language has a grammatical construction, which is independent of a system of grammati-

cal rules. The rules of construction must be conformed to the usages of the language, but should never control them. In other words, the people of any country, who employ a common language for the inter-communication of their thoughts, do it in a common and uniform method. Take, for instance, a people whose language is merely oral. They are ignorant of the principles of its construction, and of the rules of speech to which they conform every hour of the day. Yet those principles exist, and those rules might be laid down in a grammatical treatise. Their articulate sounds are combined in words, which are arranged in sentences for the expression of thought; and all this is done in a manner nearly invariable. Their grammar, in fact, began with the origin of their language. It has been gradually changed, by the introduction of new usages, till it has arrived at its present state. It varies from age to age. But fix your eye on any given period; and of the unwritten language of that period you may truly say, it has its principles of grammatical construction, no less than the language of the most literary people on earth. So the laws of the material world existed, and were in constant operation, antecedently to the discoveries of philosophers. The air was inhaled by the lungs, and sent life through the whole body, long before the physiology of man or the properties of the air were known. So the rules of refined, social intercourse are established by polite practice, and not by the direction of a master of ceremonies. They held their dominion in community, long before Chesterfield gave us a manual of etiquette.

In forming a system of rules for a written and cultivated language, its principles were obtained by discovery, not by invention. Writers on the subject did not prescribe arbitrary rules. Theirs was the humbler office of ascertaining the practice of the best speakers and writers; of inquiring into the inflections and idioms which usage has established; and then of putting a declaration of these facts into intelligible and systematic form. And this is the province of both teachers and learners, from the beginning to the end, if end there were, of the study of grammar. The most profound writer can do little more, than push his inquiries more acutely and more extensively than others. His object still is to acquire facts, to understand authorised usages, and to embody his discoveries to aid the investigations of others. When he theorises, he transcends his appropriate limits; when he dogmatises, he usurps an unjustifiable authority.

How has the language of the Sandwich Islanders been reduced to writing and to grammatical rules? An Anglo-American first learned the meaning and use of their common words. He then adopted an alphabet — letters to be combined into the syllables and words which were in use. This is the "first part of grammar," or "orthography." It was optional with him to adopt a known alpha-

bet, or to invent a new one, or to make one compounded of two or more; it being sufficient that the characters should be understood to represent the distinct sounds, and that they should do it in the least complicated manner. Now he was prepared to write a language which had never been read or written before; and to teach those to read and write it who had spoken it from their infancy.

In settling and arranging their etymology and syntax, he could not proceed one step beyond the practice of the natives. He could make no laws for the barbarians in this matter; their usages gave laws to *him*. If they formed the oblique cases of the noun by prefixes or different terminations, he could not confine them to the preposition and an invariable orthography of the noun. If they employed no auxiliary verbs, he could not introduce them. If they uttered their wishes, like ourselves, by the use of a principal verb and another in the infinitive, he could not compel them to use the optative mode of the Greeks. These slight specimens illustrate the facts, that he was obliged to learn of them before he could teach them; and that the principles of their grammar existed, long before they were known to literary men. Should this pioneer of literature in those islands continue his labors, he might contribute to the improvement of the language; but almost his sole province as a grammarian would be, to ascertain and unfold existing usages.

I may have seemed to dwell unreasonably upon a simple fact. Yet, when I develope its practical bearings, I hope to show that the discussion has not been useless.

This simple fact is not universally known among teachers of grammar; much less is it so remembered, as to be practically useful. Early pupils seldom hear of it. The present days are indeed better than the former; but in the period of my boyhood, we had strange notions of the science of grammar. We did not dream of anything practical, or applicable to the language we were using every day, till we had "been through the grammar several times," and "parsed" several months. Why? Because we were presented at once with a complete system of definitions and rules, which might perplex a Webster or a Murray, without any development of principles, any illustrations which we could comprehend, any application of the words to objects which they represent. We supposed, when we ventured to frame a thought, that the dogmas of our "grammar books" were the inventions of learned men; curious contrivances, to carry the words of a sentence through a certain operation which we called parsing, rather for the gratification of curiosity, than for any practical benefit or use. The rule in grammar would parse the word, sometimes a most sturdy and indomitable word, as the rule in arithmetic would "do the sum" and "give the answer;" and with such exploits we were satisfied. When we

found that the nominative case did indeed govern the verb, or come before it, (except when it happened to come after it), — when we accidentally perceived that the rules did actually apply to sentences, and that to observe them would really make better sense than to violate them — then great was our admiration of the *inventive* powers of those great men, who had been the lights of the grammatical world.

The books and the method of instruction were faulty. The natural order of things was inverted. The results of investigation were given us, in the form of general abstract rules, instead of the first principles of the science. It was the aim of the teacher to crowd these abstract notions into the mind of the pupil; while it was the highest ambition of the latter, to receive them with all due submission and gratitude, and treasure them up against a time of need. He believed, though he could not understand, that there would be a time for using his treasures when he should become a man, especially a learned man. Time was thus wasted in a useless study. Many have completed that which was deemed a full course, without acquiring those first principles, which should have been taught in the earliest lessons. A due regard to the fundamental fact which I have noticed, would have changed the character of our school books, and inverted the method of instruction, as will be shown in subsequent remarks.

What is the legitimate province of one who prepares an original treatise on grammar? Our fundamental principle gives the reply. It is, to ascertain the principles and usages that exist, and put them into form and arrangement. In doing the latter, his power is in a great degree arbitrary. The whole nomenclature of the science is at his option. The arrangement of words into classes, or "parts of speech," is partly arbitrary; together with their divisions and subdivisions. Accordingly, considerable variety in these respects has obtained among able and accredited writers; and a perfect uniformity is by no means essential, though it may be desirable. Every word used in the language may be classed in an intelligible manner, without such uniformity. For, though we must have the noun and the verb, (by whatever names they are known,) the same may not be true of the noun and the adjective. Some writers make them separate parts of speech, entirely distinct. Others call them both nouns; and mark the distinction which does and must exist in fact, by denominating one as the substantive noun, the other as the adjective noun. One makes all verbs either active, passive, or neuter. Another excludes the passive. Another distinguishes the active transitive from the active intransitive. Some make six tenses of the verb; others but three. For the latter number it is urged, with apparent conclusiveness, that all conceivable time is divided into

past, *present*, and *future*; and that it is absurd to speak of any other. It is true that time is so divided; and it may also be subdivided. In the use of language, we locate actions and events in different periods of past time, and also of the future. Not so of the present, which is an indivisible point. Of the present moment — it is almost literally true, that we "can never say 'tis here; but only say, 'tis past." While we speak, it is gone. Therefore we only use words denoting the indivisible point, without antecedent or consequent. But as we subdivide the past and the future in fact, by the use of language, it seems proper to mark those variations by the number and names of our tenses. If we mark *any* variations of the verb in regard to time, why not all which are in use?

Many diversities of this kind may be admitted without detriment. The object of each writer should be, to reduce the usages and principles of the language to an intelligible system. The excellencies of a good system are, simplicity; harmony or symmetry of the parts; lucid arrangement; completeness, or its comprehending all that is essential or valuable; and its adaptation to use in the hand of the teacher or the learner. I believe a better system could be formed than that in common use; one which would give first principles their appropriate eminence, and technical rules and names their comparative inferiority. Yet I should exceedingly deprecate any attempt to abrogate the system of Murray and other standard authors. After the earlier stages of instruction, pupils must have a text book, and study it most thoroughly. We may as well use Murray's as any other. Every deviation is not an improvement. Those amendments are most likely to find favor and be useful, which take away from the system arbitrary enactments, and conform it more to real practice. Those alterations cannot be admitted, which have nothing to recommend them but their strange removal from the precincts of common sense. A writer in Scotland, a great reformer, substituted the name *pointer* for article, because it points out the signification of the noun; *name* for noun, because it is the name of a person or thing; *ad-name* for adjective, because it is added to a noun; *for-name* for pronoun, because it is used for a noun; and *word* for verb, because it is *the* word by way of eminence, a part of speech with which we cannot dispense.

This remark suggests, that the general observance of our first principle would exceedingly abridge the labors of system-builders, and save them the mortification of seeing their castles in the air vanishing like vapor. Of this class of persons the world has been burdened with a sufficient number. One proposes a new orthography, reducing every vowel to one sound, discarding all silent letters, and making our written language as strange to our eyes as the Iroquois or Hindostanee. Another would make an entire revolution in the

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parts of speech; another, in the rules of syntax. One would present our children with a grammatical tree, with golden fruit on every twig. Another has a grammatical machine, for throwing off first-rate young grammarians by the turn of a crank. Another discards, as well he might, the slow and tedious process of dictation, and reverential reception of mysteries; and bids the young aspire to a complete knowledge of their mother tongue, by listening to ten or a dozen lectures from a distinguished professor. They are a goodly company of reformers, "all on hobbies;" but many of them know not the first principles of their profession; which is, that they should learn and teach the language *as it is*.

It pertains also to the writer of a grammatical treatise, to expose inelegancies, vulgarisms, anomalous constructions, foreign and barbarous admixtures, and whatever else appears to him inconsistent with the genius and best usages of the language, or calculated to introduce corrupt innovations. In discharging this service, his suggestions will be received with respectful attention, in proportion as he has earned a reputation for wisdom and fidelity in his investigation of the language itself, and for judgment and skill in naming and arranging its principles.

A due regard to this fundamental truth, would essentially improve the common method of instruction, and of study. Here permit me to mention a fact, which must have attracted your notice; the fact, that some persons speak and write with greater grammatical accuracy, without any knowledge of the science of grammar, than others who have long made it a special study. We can account for this fact, only by adverting to the difference in their education; for education, be it remembered, is not study alone. The one has been accustomed, from his infancy, to hear the language spoken correctly; and has imitated the example. His reading has contributed to the same result. The other has been moulded, from early life, by examples of a different character. He has studied grammar as a theory, as an abstract science, and an exercise of the memory; but has had little benefit of illustration, and still less of that early discipline of his mind and his tongue, which would enable him to reduce theory to practice. Practically, therefore, he remains a bungler in the use of language; and, while he wears laurels upon his brow, and has the "certificate of president and fellows" that he is a "Master in Arts," in almost every sentence he utters, murders "the people's English."

The common method of imparting and acquiring a knowledge of English grammar, need not be here described. I hasten to state the plan which I would recommend; and give my thoughts upon it with some enlargement.

Suppose, then, that the combined excellencies of all treatises on

grammar, that is to say, all the discoveries which have been made of usages and principles, to be collected in one book. Suppose they have all been made by one man; the only writer on the subject; one who has himself dug out all the real knowledge of grammar which is now extant in books, or in the heads of living men. He has this knowledge in his own mental treasury, and the quintessence of all the books in one manual, for the daily use of himself and his pupils. He is to take a child as young as may be proper, and impart to him his own knowledge of grammar; and so to impart it, that it shall be in possession of the child for practical uses; not merely that he may be able to unravel and expound the sentences which others have penned, but that he may, with readiness and elegance, "speak and write the English language correctly." Permit me to suppose myself that man, and to describe in this way, the course which I would propose.

Now if it be true, that the science of English grammar is nothing else than a correct knowledge of the usages and principles of our language, it would seem natural for me to take the same course with my pupil, that I have myself pursued. I will then induce him to investigate also. He shall begin where I began, and I will conduct him forward by the same successive steps; with this difference, that I will be his guide, whereas I groped my way alone. I will not at once set him at the end of the journey, and pour my gathered treasures upon his table, to dishearten and confound him.

Now I commence my labor as a teacher. — My pupil, to the age of ten or twelve months, is incapable of studying grammar. Then, he cannot even write, or read; but he can hear and speak; he can understand me on some topics; he can remember. He begins also to form his habits; and it is the most susceptible period of his whole life. He can imitate me also; and for several years to come, he will learn more by imitation, than by all other means combined. He imitates my manners and gestures, the tones and inflections of my voice, my pronunciation of words, and my manner of combining words and sentences. Now therefore my course is plain. I must use correct language before him, and see that it is always used in his presence, strictly prohibiting all "gibberish" and "baby-talk;" or he will be made a bad grammarian, perhaps irretrievably. I must employ simple language with him; but it need not be bad English. Why should I insult his understanding, by talking jargon and nonsense; and by such combinations of words, as I should reprove him for adopting when he is older? If he hears only correct language, he will seldom use any other; and will learn the right use of words by mere imitation, before he can read his Accidence, or get the notion of a noun. If he commits mistakes, as he undoubtedly will, I will give him the correct phrase. His mistakes, how-

parts of speech; another, in the rules of syntax. One would present our children with a grammatical tree, with golden fruit on every twig. Another has a grammatical machine, for throwing off first rate young grammarians by the turn of a crank. Another discards as well he might, the slow and tedious process of dictation, and reverential reception of mysteries; and bids the young aspire to a complete knowledge of their mother tongue, by listening to ten or a dozen lectures from a distinguished professor. They are a goodly company of reformers, "all on hobbies;" but many of them know not the first principles of their profession; which is, that they should learn and teach the language *as it is*.

It pertains also to the writer of a grammatical treatise, to expose inelegancies, vulgarisms, anomalous constructions, foreign and barbarous admixtures, and whatever else appears to him inconsistent with the genius and best usages of the language, or calculated to introduce corrupt innovations. In discharging this service, his suggestions will be received with respectful attention, in proportion as he has earned a reputation for wisdom and fidelity in his investigation of the language itself, and for judgment and skill in naming and arranging its principles.

A due regard to this fundamental truth, would essentially improve the common method of instruction, and of study. Here permit me to mention a fact, which must have attracted your notice; the fact that some persons speak and write with greater grammatical accuracy, without any knowledge of the science of grammar, than others who have long made it a special study. We can account for this fact, only by adverting to the difference in their education; for education, be it remembered, is not study alone. The one has been accustomed, from his infancy, to hear the language spoken correctly; and has imitated the example. His reading has contributed to the same result. The other has been moulded, from early life, by examples of a different character. He has studied grammar as a theory, as an abstract science, and an exercise of the memory; but has had little benefit of illustration, and still less of that early discipline of his mind and his tongue, which would enable him to reduce theory to practice. Practically, therefore, he remains a bungler in the use of language; and, while he wears laurels upon his brow, and has the "certificate of president and fellows" that he is a "Master in Arts," in almost every sentence he utters, murders "the people's English."

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grammar, that is to say, all the discoveries which have been made of usages and principles, to be collected in one book. Suppose they have all been made by one man; the only writer on the subject; one who has himself dug out all the real knowledge of grammar which is now extant in books, or in the heads of living men. He has this knowledge in his own mental treasury, and the quintessence of all the books in one manual, for the daily use of himself and his pupils. He is to take a child as young as may be proper, and impart to him his own knowledge of grammar; and so to impart it, that it shall be in possession of the child for practical uses; not merely that he may be able to unravel and expound the sentences which others have penned, but that he may, with readiness and elegance, "speak and write the English language correctly." Permit me to suppose myself that man, and to describe in this way, the course which I would propose.

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ever, will generally be such as ought to be expected: such as form ing the irregular verbs regularly; as when he says, "I *taked* th book — I *bringed* my chair." He has noticed the common prac tice, and adopted the general rule; but is not aware of the excep tions. He is making a rule for himself, contrary to usage, an must be set right.

It will be said, my plan is useless, for a child can never be kep under the influence of proper example. I grant that the obstacle are formidable indeed; but if the notion were once scouted fro society, that bad language before children, is necessary or harmles *one* point would be gained. And then, if nurses, and mothers, an elder children, and fathers too, were once instructed in the practic use of good language, the work would be done. In one genera tion, therefore, a reformation might be effected, if all who are no in the schools were properly taught.

I proceed to consider *direct* instruction. At what age should be commenced? In my apprehension, the age is not materially im portant. If you begin with the pupil at the age of five or si years, the instruction must be simple, his progress slow, and th exercise mingled with others. If at the age of eight or ten, may be made a more serious and regular business.

In guiding my pupil, I would go through with several distin courses of exercises; commencing with the simple elements; em bracing, in each successive course, a greater variety of particular and those of a more difficult character; going through the who of etymology in every course, and adverting to syntax, in eve course, after the first or second.

I. My first course would be, *to define the parts of speech*, an imprint them indelibly upon his memory by frequent repetition. would teach him by familiar conversations, entirely without the u of a book of grammar. I would make familiar remarks; ask que tions; invite questions from the learner; present sensible objec for illustration; and use every effort to make him feel, that while h is in the daily practice of speaking and hearing, he is learning living language.

I would begin with the noun, in some method like the followin "Every person, and everything, has a name, and that name w call a noun; as *John, Peter, Fanny, Lucy, table, chair, book, pe* A chair is not a noun; but *the word, chair*, is a noun." It w not confuse him to employ other words applying to the same pe sons or things, inasmuch as he knows they bear different name as *Peter* is a *boy*, and *Fanny* is a *girl*. So I would say, "*Bo girl, man, child, teacher, scholar, dog, cat*, are nouns." Witho saying a word about "parts of speech," I would thus give him definite idea of a noun; and continue or repeat the conversatio

till it becomes perfectly familiar. With abstract nouns, at present, I would have nothing to do; nor with genders, or cases, or any other distinctions.

The learner should soon be invited to mention nouns himself; the names for himself; the names of persons or objects which I had not given him. He may also be early directed to a book, and be requested to point out the nouns in an easy sentence, or to underscore them with a pencil. These exercises should be examined and corrected; and it is useful to try his judgment, whether the word which he marks, is really a name.

In the same easy manner I would give my pupil an idea of the adjective, principally noticing the qualities of sensible objects; referring him, for instance, to the evidence of his eye, his ear, and his palate. Let him taste a *sweet apple*, another *bitter*, another *sour*. Each of the objects is an apple; they all bear the same name; and that name is a noun. But their qualities are different; each of those qualities has a word to express it; and those words are adjectives. The child understands what you mean. So let him distinguish, by the eye, the *large* apple from the *small;* the *green* apple from the *white*, and the *red;* and the *raw* apple from the *baked*. Let him advert to *man* as a noun, and mark the difference between the *tall* man and the *short* man; the *black* man and the *white;* the *young* man and the *old*. In the same manner as that employed about the noun, he may be made to possess a knowledge of the adjective, which he will never lose. The pronoun, also, and all the parts of speech, should be taught in the same manner. In respect to the verb, I would, during this first course, take only those words which signify *to do* something, and give examples only of *active* verbs. When this lesson is firmly riveted in the mind, it will more readily comprehend the neuter and the passive verbs — those which "signify to be, and to suffer."

In this course, the distinctions of modes and tenses of verbs, the comparison of adjectives, and all the variations of other parts of speech, should be entirely omitted. The sole object should be to teach some prominent and principal fact under all the parts of speech, and so illustrate and explain it that it shall never be forgotten. With anything beyond this, the memory should not yet be encumbered. It may not be advisable so much as to say, there are any parts of speech; and it is of no consequence that the child should know whether there are nine or ninety. It might be better to arrange in *classes* the words which are taught, than to denominate them "parts of speech." One is a class of words which stand for the *names* of things; another, of those which signify *to do something;* another, of those which are used *instead of nouns*, to avoid the unpleasant repetition; and so of the rest. The nomencla-

ture of grammar is out of place for a young beginner. A large class might be taught in this manner, with the same facility as an individual.

II. A second course of instruction should be *a review of the first*, with *a communication of additional leading principles, still leaving minutiæ to a later period.*

It may now be advisable to name some of the more easy abstract nouns; the distinction of nouns into common and proper; the genders and cases, so far as they are connected with those verbs which the child understands; a few of the modes and tenses of active verbs; the comparison of adverbs; the two kinds of conjunctions; and a few other particulars.

This course, like the first, should be conducted orally, without reference to a book, except when a vocabulary is needed. I would now show the combination of words more distinctly than before. I would give the pupil several examples of every principle or fact which I desired to inculcate, and then always exercise his ingenuity in selecting similar examples for himself.

I will briefly illustrate the method of teaching the comparison of adjectives. Select sensible objects, and let the quality to be compared be distinctly perceived. Take three apples: A is sweet; B is sweeter; and C is the sweetest of the three. John is tall; William is taller; and George is the tallest of them all. The child perceives that you mean an increase of the quality. Take, then, examples where the quality is decreased. A short pen; a shorter pen; the shortest pen. A small book; a smaller book; the smallest book. Not the smallest book that may be found; but the smallest of those compared. In a short time, a child will be able to perceive the application of the adverbs, for the purpose of comparison.

The cases of nouns, and the connection of the nominative and objective cases with the active verb, should be taught together, and by way of familiar example. Take the sentence, *John reads the book.* The learner knows that *John* and *book* are both names, or nouns; and that *reads* denotes doing a certain action. Now we say, *John reads the book?* Who reads? John. What does John read? The book. Does the book read John? No. Does the book read at all? No. Then John does something? Yes. What does John do? He reads: he reads the book. Here then are two names. One is the name of a doer — of one who does something. The other is the name of the object that he looks at and attends to. Which denotes the doer? *John.* And what does *book* denote? The object of his attention; it is what he reads. Now nouns that are names of doers or agents, or those which do something, are frequently used in this manner; and we say they are in

the nominative case. The other is of a class which denote objects; and are said to be in the objective case. And the verb that denotes an action done to an object, is called a transitive verb. Now let the pupil spend several half hours for successive days, in selecting *agents*, and *objects*, and the verbs which connect them.

From this exercise, the transition is easy to the consideration of the verb in the passive form, when the object precedes the verb like a nominative, and the agent follows in the objective case with a preposition. But this is too complicated for the present course. It may be taken up subsequently, in connection with a review of the preceding.

Children are very apt to say "He reads *slow*—he runs *swift*," especially when they hear others speak thus improperly. They use adjectives for adverbs, not distinguishing the qualities of things from those of actions. A class should therefore have a few exercises, for the sole purpose of learning that distinction. And, as in every other instance, it is better to show it—than to teach it. "His reading is *slow;* he reads *slowly*. A *swift* race; he runs *swiftly*."

III. In the third course, I would pass through the whole system again, *gathering up all the important distinctions which were before omitted.* I would not yet follow the order of a grammatical treatise; but an arrangement more natural and simple. The office of the teacher should be, to illustrate every principle by known practice; or rather to bring up usages before them, and lead them to ascertain principles for themselves; aiding them by the nomenclature and the established arrangement, as occasion may require; uniting the exercise of parsing, according to the grammatical treatise, *after* they have seen examples, and in the order that the series of lessons demands. Consequently, this course will require the frequent *occasional* use of a book of grammar. Without enlarging here, I will name some of the facts to be taught in this course, in addition to those of the second. They should be the possessive case and genders of nouns; the different classes of pronouns; the neuter, active, intransitive, and passive verbs; the regular verb, and a few of the irregular, enough to make them familiar with the principle; the tenses and voices of the participles; the use of conjunctions connected with verbs; and the rules of syntax, without their exceptions. The rules should now be committed to memory.

IV. My fourth course should be, *a regular and systematic study of a treatise upon grammar,* (of the common size for schools,) *in constant connection with parsing, gathering up all the remaining fragments.* By fragments I mean, irregular adjectives and adverbs; the minutiæ of the pronouns; pronominal and participial adjectives; impersonal, irregular and defective verbs; the active, passive and neuter participles; the exceptions to the rules of syntax, and the

" observations" which are commonly made in the books concernin their application.

This course is intended to give the pupil the *philosophy* of th language, in its elements. We have before analyzed sentences and in fact, have analyzed the book of grammar, and impressed u on the mind its most important principles. The synthetic met od is now pursued — to collect and arrange the principles *whic the pupil himself has discovered*, and put them in regular ord for future use. He still combines parsing, or the practical applica tion of principles, with the methodical study of rules. He is no to gird himself to close application, with which I would by no mean dispense. It is absolutely essential, to high attainments in an science. It should be employed in every study, as necessary f the discipline of the mind and the formation of character. But have passed through the preceding course, to relieve young min from the most disheartening toil ; and to invigorate them for clos application, not to supersede it. I would make them feel contin ally, that their labor is one of immediate and practical utility ; an they will learn to account it a pleasure.

In this course, it is highly useful to ask frequently the *reaso* of assertions which pupils make. For instance, " *Why* is the ver neuter, or transitive? *Why* is the noun in the objective case, o the nominative? *Why* is the word an adjective here, and not a adverb? *Why* is it a perfect participle, and not a verb in the pe fect tense? *Why* is it in the indicative mode, and not the subjun tive? *Why* has the potential mode but four tenses, the infinitiv but two, and the imperative but one ; while both the indicative an the subjunctive have six? "

If the same word may be of two or more parts of speech, asce tain the sense in which it is used, to make it of one or another.

Compare also one part of speech with another, in their expressio and power; and show how, in particular instances, one is derive from another.

Through this course, as in all the preceding, often use fal grammar, and let the pupils correct it, in order to remove pract cal abuses, and impress the truth more deeply.

V. A fifth course is *a review of the book of grammar, and critical investigation of language.* It is intended for those wh can parse readily in prose ; who have acquired a thorough know edge of general principles; and who are versed in the various pa ticulars, and in the irregularities usually noted in the commo treatises. A more extended work should now be adopted f study ; and the exercises for parsing and criticising, should ofte be blank verse, and other difficult selections. This study may b profitably connected with the writing of themes by the pupils, an

with the rhetorical examination of their own and others' composition. The more intelligent pupils may read, in connection with these exercises, a system of rhetoric, and the approved critical writers. For the classical scholar, the gentleman of literature, or the teacher by profession, this is the same course which he will traverse and re-traverse, through life.

To sum up all, the principles on which the proposed method of instruction are founded, are these:

The teacher is not to require that his pupil receive the *ipse dixit* of the author whose book he uses, or his own. He is not to lay down rules, but to teach principles.

When he teaches a principle he must show that it is established in fact, or that such is the usage. It is best, therefore, to show the usage, and infer the principle.

A fact should be so far examined, as to show that it is not an isolated thing, an exception to a principle; but so common as to establish a principle, from which you may frame a technical rule.

Hence, parsing should accompany or precede the study of definitions, and principles and rules.

The teacher and pupil begin with the most simple, and prominent, and leading facts.

They dwell on every one of these, till it is familiar to the learner, so as never to be lost.

They do but one thing at a time, or at most two; and let minutiæ pass, till they can be better understood and assigned to their appropriate places. It is unwise to carry a learner through all the inflections of a verb, and several verbs of different kinds; before he actually knows what the nature and uses of a verb are, and why it is inflected at all.

The teacher prepares himself, by acquiring the theory and application of the science. He learns the theory *through* the practice or usages of good writers and speakers; and teaches in the same manner. He is thus able to exemplify the principles which he teaches, in all the language he employs with his pupils.

He gently corrects the common language employed by his pupils, in all their intercourse with him.

He begins without books of grammar, and teaches them how they are made; by searching out usages, then inferring principles, and showing them immediately the necessity, the application, and the reasonableness of every rule that is mentioned. Rules are seldom committed to memory till they are wanted.

He seizes on the grand distinctions of the principal parts of speech, in the first course; and makes them familiar with the method. In the second, he adverts to other important distinctions, making constant reference to the knowledge attained in the first.

In the third, he treats of the remaining important distinctions, with many leading particulars and divisions. The fourth course is pursued in the synthetic method. It is a systematic study of a treatise; including exceptions, deviations, irregularities and anomalies. The fifth comprises a more critical survey of the whole system; with the application of principles to more abstruse and complicated kinds of writing. The whole is conducted by the teacher, very much in the way of conversation and familiar lecturing; with a constant reference to practice.

A few moments only are left, for the consideration of the other part of the subject assigned me.

By composition, I understand *inditing*, or putting one's own thoughts into language, whether oral or written. Thoughts must be presented in sentences, grammatically and rhetorically constructed, so as to convey the sense intended, and nothing more; — to convey it clearly, accurately, forcibly, and, if it may be, elegantly. So far as Rhetoric is connected with composition, I forbear to enter upon the subject; as it has already been discussed before the Institute, far more ably than I could do it. It is highly desirable, that the measures then proposed, and all that can be devised, should be carried into effect. How many of those who have studied a system of Rhetoric, can examine a chapter of a standard work, and apply the principles they have learned, with facility and correctness? How many can bear those principles in mind, while penning their own thoughts, and conform every sentence to the standard? Something that shall render rhetorical rules available in the formation of style, and useful in future life, is yet a desideratum in most of our schools. But I purpose merely to throw out a few remarks, which may be useful to beginners in the art of composition; and possibly, to those teachers who have the direction of their early efforts.

I remember to this day, the terror that came over me, when first required, at the age of eighteen, to "write a composition," for a school exercise; how I was set to work without materials, or tools, or instructions. I had no subject — no thoughts. My mental operations were almost suspended. The soul looked out trembling, now upon vacancy, now upon dark chaos. I would shudder at the thought of imposing such a task upon a pupil of my own; and would gladly discover "a more excellent way."

The measures I would propose may be divided into the preparatory, and the direct.

As preparatory, I would say: In all the studies and pursuits of your pupil, give him, at an early age, *real knowledge* — a knowledge of things, of facts, of truths — correct, definite knowledge. Give him a knowledge of the uses of things, or the application of

truths and facts. Make him acquainted with correct and appropriate language — a language which to himself conveys a definite sense. Make him acquainted with books adapted to his capacity. All this is important; for he can never write good sense without this preparation; and the earlier he begins to look at things as they are, and to form the habit of investigation, the better is he able to take his pen at the proper time.

Accustom the child early and habitually, to utter his thoughts. In the family and the school, talk with him and 'draw him out.' Use the conversational method freely, when teaching any subject. Make him put the substance of an author's meaning into his own words, and give you his own original thoughts, which this method of instruction will elicit. When the pen is to be taken in hand, give him a theme; one about which a child can have thoughts. Or, if he prefer it, let him select for himself. But by no means, send him away to his task without one.

Ask of him a short exercise at first — only a few sentences.

Talk over the theme with him, or to him, before he begins. Perhaps it will be an account of some transaction which he or you have witnessed. Then relate the story yourself in a familiar way; and ask him to seize on the principal points.

Encourage him to come to you in his embarrassments, and show you his progress. Then help him; or rather lead him. Give some turn to his thoughts; propose some query; thus putting his mind in motion upon his theme.

But he desires to know how he may control his mind, and bring it to bear upon his subject, when alone. Tell him, "To *write* a thought — first, *catch* a thought. You *have* thoughts. They are rushing through your mind, and flying away. Seize upon one, and put it down; and see if it will not be followed by another, and another. Do not stay for the wisest and the best, or to select the most elegant words. Put down the thoughts that come, in the dress they wear. You can revise afterwards."

Tell him to seek for some connection between successive thoughts; every new one being distinct from the preceding.

Encourage him, in his early efforts, to bring you his first draft.

Be not severe in criticising; but strengthen his weak and awkward footsteps in this rugged way. It is well to omit noticing many defects; and inquire, whether he has expressed appropriate ideas in tolerably correct language. If so, let him pass for the present.

Now talk over the topic with him, with a view to his writing again upon the same. Let him see wherein he has done what he intended, and what the subject required; and wherein he has failed.

Suggest alterations, and give him again some leading thoughts. Perhaps, however, this course should not often be adopted.

From these beginnings you can proceed with him gradually, in the same general manner, to longer exercises; to more difficult themes, and to more severe corrections. You may soon adopt a freer application of rhetorical rules; or rather, teach him to discover and apply rhetorical principles. You may eventually induce that energy and polish of manner, that shall make him an easy, fluent, forcible and elegant writer. His knowledge of grammar and rhetoric will not lie as useless lumber, in the storehouse of his memory; but will be at his command, as occasion may require.

For the want of an early exercise of the tongue and the pen, many learned men are but ordinary, as speakers and writers. Some can address an audience acceptably, who cannot write. Others can compose well for the press, who can attempt nothing extemporaneously, before an audience. Others still have great and valuable mental treasures, who cannot impart them by either method. We know that they are learned and profound; but they cannot "do good and communicate." It is a misfortune ever to be deplored, that knowledge should thus be shut up in reservoirs, which might have been flowing in living streams, to fertilize the world. A strong argument is this, for new and multiplied efforts, to revive and extend a familiar and thorough knowledge of grammar, and the art of composition.

Art. III. — Practical Lessons on Reading.

Method of Teaching Children to Read and Spell.

By J. L. Parkhurst.

[Continued from page 137.]

In Nos. I. and III. of the present volume, we presented our readers with part of an interesting experiment, by Mr Parkhurst. It consisted in teaching reading and spelling to a child of his, between four and five years of age, on a plan somewhat novel and peculiar; — an experiment which led to the production of his "First Lessons," or Primer.

The article is chiefly copied verbatim from of a diary of his proceedings, and of the child's progress, from day to day, commencing August 1, 1829, and ending on the 24th of the March following. The two portions of the article which we have already inserted, embraced a period of about a month; and the remainder is inserted below.

By recurring to the numbers of this work already referred to, it will be seen, that Mr P. began his experiment by first showing the child, from Worcester's Primer, a few whole words; as *man*, *hat*, *dog*, &c, and teaching him, by the aid of pictures, of the objects for

which those words stand, to recognise and distinguish them. On the same day, he also prepared an alphabet of Roman small letters, on pasteboard, cut them up into tickets, and putting them together in regular succession, he gradually taught him to read the syllables which were thus formed. The *simplest* combinations of letters were first taught — afterwards those which were more difficult. Both these processes were continued daily, but quite independently of each other. In either case, only a few steps were taken in a day; but when a word, or a combination of letters, was once presented, it was made an important point not to proceed to another, till the first was thoroughly *understood* and *remembered*.

At the expiration of the *first four days* of the experiment, the child had learned to read thirteen different words, besides being able to distinguish the syllables *ab*, *ob* and *ol*, in types of three different sizes. These words and syllables embraced *nineteen* letters of the alphabet.

About this time he was also taught to distinguish, or *spell*, the letters of the words which composed his reading lessons, and gradually, in the same manner, short sentences.

At the end of just one month, he had learned sixty-five words, and thirty-two combinations of letters on the tickets, eight of which were words with meaning; in all, seventy-two significant words — and this, too, without including, (except in one instance,) the *plurals* of the several words. Nothing was regarded as *learned*, which was not fully *understood* and *remembered*. With this explanation, we lay before our readers the rest of the article, regretting that we have been compelled to divide it. We believe that those who are interested in the philosophy of education and of language, or who have a similar task to perform, will not be weary of its details, or dissatisfied with its simplicity.

Sept. 5. Nothing new yesterday. What he learned the day before, he can now read promiscuously. Having placed the letter *d* under *t*, I taught him *od*; and he then read thus: ot, od; at, ad; it, id; ut, ud; et, ed. He found out *ud*, *ed*, *ad* and *id*, by analogy. I have never before seen him manifest such visible effort in comparing and ascertaining sounds; nor have I ever before so deeply felt the excellence of this method of teaching. I also placed the *d* under the *p*, and had him read thus: ob, op, od; ab, ap, ad, &c. H. now, on uttering the sound *od*, remarked, "That is a little the same as *ot*, isn't it, Pa?" Thus he notices the *resemblance* of these two similar sounds; and yet he has observed their *difference* so carefully, that he has not once confounded them. How pleasant, to see these advances in a habit of discrimination. H. has to-day learned two new sentences, containing three new words. He spelled the word *man*, and then, adding an *s*, asked if it was not *men*, and could hardly be persuaded to the contrary. This is a confirmation of what I said the 1st inst. Perhaps it ought to be mentioned, that, for a week past, H. has been learning to tell the *hour* by the time-piece, which has occupied his attention considerably.

Sept. 7. H. has learned one new sentence, containing three new words. Having placed the *p*, *d* and *b* at the bottom of the column, I took another *b* to be used as an initial in forming tri-literal combinations. I then placed

the *o* so as to make him read *ol*, and immediately placed the initial *b* at the left of the *o*, and said, "*bol*." Then, having removed both the letters, and returned them so as to make him read *ol*, *bol*, I immediately slipped down the *o*, and, as soon as he had said *ox*, slipped down the *b*, too, and he almost instantly said, *box*. I then proceeded in moving down the *o* and *b* alternately, and he, without any difficulty, read as follows: og, bog; on, bon; om, bom; ot, bot; op, bop; od, bod; ob, bob. Thus, I told him one new combination, and he found out eight himself. To read in this novel manner, delighted him very much. I afterwards moved the *b* and *o* together, so as to make him read, *bol*, *box*, *bog*, &c.

Sept. 8. H. has this morning found out the nine combinations, *bal*, *bax*, &c. He found out *bal* thus: *ol*, *bol*; *al*, *bal*. He could immediately read the rest of the column as fast as he could speak. I then gave him a promiscuous exercise, as follows: ox, box; al, bal; og, bog; ax, bax; on, bon; ag, bag; and so on, sliding the *b* back and forth, and the two vowels the one after the other; a process much more simple on the board than it may appear on paper. He read in this manner, also, as fast as I could move the tickets. He has learned two new sentences, containing three new words.

Sept. 9. Two new sentences — four new words, and the nine combinations, *bil*, *bix*, &c.

Sept. 10. One new sentence — one new word, and the nine combinations, *bul*, *bux*, &c.

Sept. 11. One new sentence — two new words, and the nine combinations, *bel*, *bex*, &c. When he came to *bed*, I asked him if he knew what it meant? He said, "Yes, Sir; it means a bed to *sleep* in." And on going through the column a second time, when he came to *bel*, he remarked, of his own accord, "That means a bell to *ring*."

Sept. 12–15. H. learned six new sentences, containing eleven new words.

Sept. 16. One new sentence — two new words. H. having learned the forty-five combinations beginning with *b*, I took the letter *l* for an initial, and he read the nine combinations *lel*, *lex*, &c. He found them all out by beginning with *eg*, *leg*, the word *leg* having been learned in the Primer. I neglected teaching him these before, for want of time. As soon as he had learned these nine combinations, I attempted to make him take *b* and *l* for initials, alternately; as, *bel*, *lel*; *bex*, *lex*; but he confounded the *b* and *l* so often, that I desisted from the attempt.

Sept. 17. Two new sentences — two new words. I have been trying again, this morning, to make H. distinguish the power of *b* and *l*, as initials. He does a *little* better; but makes very bad work of it. I have never been so baffled since *ox*, *nox* and *fox* were buried in oblivion, (Aug. 6). I believe *bex*, *lex*, must share the same fate for the present.

I this evening took *s* for an initial, beginning with *un*, *sun*. He read the nine combinations formed with the vowel *u*, and soon afterwards pointed at another vowel, and told what it would spell; and I found that he could read, without hesitancy, and even promiscuously, the whole forty-five combinations beginning with *s*. He notices, as he proceeds, such English words as he understands. Just now, when he came to *six*, I said, "What does that mean?" Pausing a moment, to think how to express it, he replied, "It means three and three."

Sept. 18–20. Two new sentences — six new words. On the 19th, H. was not taught.

Sept. 21. One new sentence — two new words. H. has, this morning, read the thirty-six combinations formed with the vowels *a*, *i*, *o*, *u*, and the letter *l* for an initial.

Sept. 22. One new sentence — two new words. H. has now got so as to distinguish the three initials *s*, *l*, and *b*; and he can read, promiscuously, the one hundred and thirty-five combinations formed with them, almost without an error. He tells those beginning with *s* the most readily: his principal difficulty has been with the *b*. I hardly know how to describe, on paper, the process by which I have made him master of all these combinations. When he had learned the thirty-six mentioned yesterday, I placed *b*, *l* and *s* in a column, on the left hand, and, moving *o* to *x*, as soon as he said *ox*, moved both to the *b*; and, as soon as he said *box*, moved the same to the *l* and *s*. Or, I moved the letters so as to make him read, *eg*, *leg*, *beg*, *seg*. Or, *un*, *sun*, *lun*, *bun*. That is, I *began* the series with a word with which he was *familiar before*. As soon as he could read well thus, I took the letters in order; as, *sal*, *lal*, *bal*; *sax*, *lax*, *bax*; &c. When he could read all the one hundred and thirty-five in this manner, I placed the five vowels by as many different consonants, and, moving the initials one after the other, made him read as follows: *sal*, *lex*, *big*; then, moving down the initials, made him read thus: *bon*, *lig*, *sex*; and so on.

Sept. 23. One new sentence — two new words. H. has read the forty-five combinations beginning with *r*. He told them even more readily than he did those beginning with *s*. I also find that he can read *sal*, *lal*, *bal*, *ral*, &c, without difficulty.

The question has occurred to me, whether it would not be better to commence reading triliteral combinations much earlier, — say after learning eight or sixteen duoliteral combinations, instead of the whole forty-five. This can be determined only by experiment. It is plain, however, that the sound of a consonant is more distinct and forcible at the end of a syllable, than at the beginning; and hence it must be *easier* to learn the power of the consonants as final, than as initial letters; and that which is the easiest, ought, generally, to be learned *first*. I should think, also, that the organic habit — if I may term it so — formed by the enunciation of final consonants, would, in some measure, *prepare* the learner, by association of ideas, to use his organs rightly in uttering the same sounds less forcibly at the commencement of words and syllables.

In teaching H. the sentence, "Now see how fast I will learn," I found a difficulty in making him distinguish *now* and *how*. (See remark on *cat* and *hat*, Aug. 1.) I infer the following rule: *Two words, of similar appearance or sound, and beginning with different initials, ought not to be learned at one lesson.*

Sept. 24. One new sentence — one new word, and the forty-five combinations beginning with *h*.

Sept. 25. Two new sentences — five new words. I taught him the word *hay* thus: As he had learned the words *may* and *day*, I placed the letters *m*, *d* and *h* in a column, and moving the letters *ay*, he read, *may*, *day*, *hay*. He readily knew what to call the word *hay*, and instantly recognised its meaning. If he had been taught, from the beginning, wholly with tickets, he probably would not be so ready, as he now is, in recognising every word with which he was before acquainted, as a part of our spoken language.

Sept. 26. Three new words, and the forty-five combinations formed by *f* as an initial. Among these he recognised the word *fox*, which I covered in Lesson 2, and which has long been the only word he could not read in the columns appended to that Lesson. He was delighted to find it out. I now tore off the covering from 'the picture of fox' and 'the word of fox,' as he expresses it, and thus added to his pleasure. The covering was put on, August 6.

Sept. 27–30. Three new sentences — nine new words; and the twenty-seven combinations formed with the initial *c*, and the vowels *a*, *o* and *u*; the forty-five combinations beginning with *d*; and the twenty-seven formed with the initial *g*, and the vowels *a*, *o* and *u*. Not recollecting any word he had learned beginning with *g*, I began with *gal*, *gax*, &c. and he read right, without the least hesitation. This confirms my remark on 'organic habit.' (See Sept. 23.)

It is now *two months* since H. began. He has learned, in September, 75 words from the book, and 41 words from his tickets — total, 116; besides hundreds of syllables, which are not words. I reckon those only as words, whose meaning he can easily understand. In two months he has learned to read 189 such words. I have continued to spend, as nearly as I could, equal portions of time on the tickets and the book. I am now confirmed in the utility of the ticket system, at least in connection with a book; and to as great an extent as I have employed it."

In *October*, H. learned to read nearly forty new sentences, containing between fifty and sixty new words. A few extracts from my diary will give an idea of his progress.

Oct. 1. H. the other day, in spelling *what*, covered the *wh* with his finger, and said, "It is *at*, now;" and then subjoined, "*at* sounds like *a* in *what*, does n't it?"

The following method of teaching, which I consider very useful, I believe has not yet been mentioned. I lay two tickets before him; he says "*an*." I add a letter; he says, "*and*." I prefix a letter; he says, "*hand*." And on my adding another letter, he says, "*hands*." And so of other words, which admit a similar process. The same may be done by covering and uncovering parts of words.

A few days since, I had in my hand a printed paper, at which H. glancing read the word *Lot*. He had never been taught this word, except among hundreds of unmeaning combinations, beginning with small letters. Yesterday, in a newspaper, he pointed out the word *cook*, and told its meaning. He had never seen this word before: he knew it in consequence of knowing *book*, and having learned the power of *c*, as an initial. These examples, with others that might be named, demonstrate the utility of the ticket system.

H. has read the forty-five combinations formed with the letter *m* as an initial. I found he could not only begin with a new combination, but could read promiscuously at the very outset.

Oct. 2. H. has read the forty-five combinations beginning with *n*.

Oct. 3. H. has found out the word *noon*, in a newspaper, in consequence of knowing the words *soon* and *moon*, *no* and *not*. He found it out before he read with the initial *n*.

Oct. 4–5. H. has read the forty-five combinations beginning with *p* and the forty-five beginning with *t*. It has seemed to be almost useless to hear him read the combinations beginning with *m*, *n*, *p* and *t*, as he has appeared to know them as well when he began, as when he had done. It gives him, however, much pleasure, to read with every new initial.

Oct. 6–9. H. has read the 135 combinations beginning with *w*, *j* and *y*. He has not received the usual degree of attention, on account of my engagements. He found out the combinations beginning with *j* and *y* merely by knowing the words *John*, *you* and *yes*.

I have now completed the intended course of instruction on the ticket system, including 729 combinations — besides all that has been learned from the Primer and elsewhere, as the fruits of that knowledge of the

powers of the letters, and that skill in the analysis and synthesis of words, which the ticket system has imparted.

H. to-day came to the word *fall*. He had never learned it, and could not read it. I covered the first letter; he said *all*. I uncovered it, and he said, *fall*; and at once perceived the meaning. Then, having spelled it with tickets, he removed the last letter, and said, "Now it is *făl*."—Thus rapidly is he learning the various analogies of the English language.

Oct. 11. I taught H. the word *small*; and just after, seeing the word *spin*, which he had never learned, he read it without hesitation. He knew *pin* before. This is the first instance, in which his knowledge of the sound of a consonant, has enabled him to combine it with another consonant. He gives abundant evidence, that he knows the powers or sounds of the letters, better than a child who has been taught in the common way. He remarked, just now, that he could spell *Will-um*, but did not know how to spell *Will-iam*. The combination of the word *will* and the syllable *um*, was entirely a thought of his own.

Since I wrote the above, H. says to me, "I have found out *from*, on a piece of newspaper. It has one [letter] in *fan*, and one in *rat*, and *om*.—It has two consonants together, and a vowel." Opening his Primer, I happened to see *frog*, and asked if he could read it. He did, and told the meaning without hesitation. He had learned to distinguish vowels and consonants, by my occasionally speaking of one column as vowels, and another as consonants, in teaching him with the tickets.

Oct. 13. I have taught H. *fi*, joined into one character. It cost me some labor to make him understand this compound thing. I showed him *fish*, spelled with tickets, and the word *fish* in his Primer; and showed him, as well as I could, how the two letters were joined together. Just after, I showed him *fig*, which he knew perfectly when spelled with a capital or with tickets. He could not read it. I pointed at *fish*, and then at *fig*, and he pronounced the word. *Quere:* Is it essential, in children's books, that *fi* and *fl* should be united? H. has to-day found out so many new words, by himself, that I have been quite astonished. Some he finds out by analogy, and some by the connection. I shall not put these words into my account until I insert them in his album, or teach them to him in regular order, sentence by sentence. His progress is rapid, indeed.

Oct. 15–16. H. was neglected on account of special engagements.

Oct. 17. I have had a new spelling-board made for H., two feet long, and six inches wide. I also, a week or two ago, got a pane of glass, eight by ten, to use in teaching him according to the ticket system. The best ticket-board would be, a smooth glass, one foot long, and four inches wide, put into a frame.

Oct. 20. While I was hearing H. read to-day, he fixed his eye on the word *sweet*, which he had never learned, and pronounced it distinctly. I asked, "How did you know that word?" He said, "I found it out—knowing *feet*, and *wax*, and *sun*." This is his answer, verbatim. I was so struck with it, that I immediately wrote it down.

Oct. 21. In finding out new words, H. practises covering and uncovering the parts of the word with his fingers. He just now found out the words *room* and *form*.

Oct. 23. H. has lately learned to add and multiply, the amount or product not exceeding 12.

Oct. 24. H. has, within a few minutes, and without the least assistance, found out *black*, *bright*, and *butter*. "I knew *butter*," said he, "because it is like *water*."

Oct. 27. I have just heard H. read with his tickets, eighty combinations, of four letters each, ending in *ek*. He found among them several words which were familiar to him, and which pleased him much.

Oct. 29. I have been so deeply engaged, this week and the last, in preparing my "First Lessons" for the press, that H. has been somewhat neglected. He finds out dissyllables with great facility. I do not attempt to keep an account of them all. I find that the ticket system has prepared him to mispronounce a great many polysyllables.* To-day, I, for the first time, put the Italic letters, small and capital, on his spelling-board, and he arranged them all in alphabetical order without help.

Oct. 31. It is now *three months* since H. began. He has learned, in October, 156 new words, besides a great many that were not counted.—Of these 156 words, he learned from the tickets, or found out himself, 105; leaving only 51 told to him in a direct manner. The sum total, for the three months, is 345 words; but if all had been counted, it would probably not fall short of 400.

November 3. H. was neglected yesterday.

Nov. 12. H. learned twelve new words. I believe I have never distinctly stated the method in which H., without knowing the names of the letters, tells how to spell a word. When I taught him, this evening, the word *sir*, in the Primer, he was much pleased, as he is at almost every new word, and said, "I can *spell* 'SIR.'" "How would you spell it?" I asked. He replied, "I would take one in *sun*, one in *pin*, and one in *rat*." This has been his method of naming letters for a long time, and it serves to keep him familiar with the various words to which he thus refers, and also leads him to notice the manner in which the same letters are used in different words. It has cost him much effort to remember how to spell *great* and *break*, on account of the unusual sound of the diphthong in these words; but he seems to have learned them at last, as he, to-day, on being shown the word *speak*, ventured, after a little hesitation, to pronounce it *spake!* Such are the perplexities to a learner, arising from the wretched irregularity of English orthography.

Nov. 15. H. has learned nearly three pages of "Barbauld's Lessons," containing seventeen new words. This is going rather too fast; but he found out the greater part of the new words himself, and I shall be careful to have him review, to-morrow.

Nov. 16. I found no time for H. till this evening; but he had forgotten only one word,—*fields*.

Nov. 17. I have just introduced to him the letter *q*, in this manner: I took his spelling-board and spelled *wick*. As soon as he had pronounced it, I placed a *k* before it, and he said, "*quick*." I said, "I will show you *another* way to spell *quick*;" and I placed *qu* under the *kw*, and slipped down the *ick*. "Is that *quick*?" said he, with mingled pleasure and surprise. I told him that this was the way it must be spelled. I then varied the termination so as to spell *quill* and *quite*: he read each without any telling.

Nov. 18. I taught H. the word *blaze*, for the sake of showing him z.—He has now learned the whole alphabet. I have taught him the meaning of the words *Italic*, *Roman*, and *syllables*.

Nov. 19. H. has to-day learned fifteen new words. He came to *slate*, and could not read it. I spelled, with tickets, the word *made*, which he

* The error consisted chiefly, in laying too much stress on unaccented syllables, as in pronouncing the word *seldom*, so as to give the *o* the same sound as in *predominate*. The evil was not a serious one; and, if I recollect aright, was of short continuance. He would naturally rectify it as soon as he recognised the meaning of the word.

already knew: then *mate*, then *late*, then *slate*. In this way he was enabled to read the word.

Nov. 20. H. has learned nineteen new words. I am surprised to see how many new words he can learn in a day, and remember till the next day. He finds out the greater part of them himself. In some instances the connection and sense evidently aid him in discovering a word. He found out *apple-dumpling* and *potatoes*, just now, by being shown a syllable at a time; i. e. I first covered up all but the first syllable; then, all but the second, or first and second; then, all but the third, and so on.— H. *reviews* what he has learned, a portion every day, so as to complete the review in a fortnight. He has learned a *period*, *comma* and *hyphen*. He is beginning to learn to read *writing*. I have not encouraged it, but he is very desirous of learning. I have spent, perhaps, fifteen minutes in showing him; and I find that he can decipher a great many words, even where the hand is not very fair. I suppose the learning of italics has prepared him to do this.

Nov. 21. *Eleven* new words.

Nov. 23. *Twelve* new words. H. has learned to count 100, to read the figures for the same, and to tell how many times 10 are 20, 30, 40, &c.

Nov. 24–25. I was prevented from teaching H. by ill health.

Nov. 26. *Nine* new words.—27th, *Eleven* new words.—28th, *Nine* new words.

Nov. 30. It is now *four months* since H. began. I have counted the words learned in November, and find the number 250. In the whole four months he has learned 600 words. He can *read all* of these, and can probably *spell two thirds*, perhaps *three fourths* of them. I find the labor of keeping an account of all the new words so great, that I think I shall pursue it no farther. He can read thirty-two entire pages in Worcester's Primer, and no small part of the remainder. He can also read about half a page in the Franklin Primer, seven pages in Barbauld's Lessons, and four pages in another little book. His fondness for *reading* continues undiminished; but he is not so enthusiastically fond of *spelling*, as he was; and he has, already, become almost tired of *counting*.

Dec. 10. H's review now occupies three weeks.

Jan. 2, 1830. H. now reviews what he has learned only once in four weeks. In reading a page in Barbauld, which he has never seen before, he finds out, without being told, almost all the new words; and does not, I think, in one instance in a hundred, fail of recognising words which he has read elsewhere.

Feb. 9. H. now reviews once in five weeks. He has lately commenced the study of "Emerson's Arithmetic." He is much pleased with it, and so am I. He learns from it to read, as well as to reckon. I intended to teach H. the *names* of the letters, at the end of six months from the commencement of his learning to read; but have not yet set in earnest about it. On his asking me to do this, a day or two since, I showed him the syllable *re*, and, as soon as he had pronounced it, I covered the *r*, and he said, "*e*." "Well," said I, "that is the name of that letter." I then taught him the names of *a*, *i* and *o*, in the same manner; and I find he understands that the vowel is called *e*, even in *hen*.

Feb. 13. I just now showed H. an *f*, and told him its name; and then, on being shown *l*, *m*, *n*, *s*, and *x*, he called each by its right name without any assistance. Fixing his eye, on *t*, he said that was *et*.— I am quite at a loss how to proceed in teaching him the rest of the letters. I have almost a mind to let him call them *eb*, *ed*, &c. for the present. I fear, how-

ever, that it would be harder to alter, afterwards, than to learn them at f according to their common names.

March 5. About a week ago, I taught H. the names of *j* and *k*. I h since, at intervals, taught him the names of *n*, *h*, *q*, and *w*. He readily derstood, that pronouncing the names of the letters in a word in succ sion, is called *spelling*. I heard him yesterday trying to explain to Edw [a younger brother] the "*two ways*" of spelling which he has learned. guard against his getting the impression, that the *names* of the letters h any connection with the *sound* or *pronunciation* of a word. I have j taught him the name of *y*. I took up the letter, and he said to me, "If will *spell* it, I shall know." I placed *wi* under the letter, and he ima diately, pointing at the letter, said, "The name of that letter is *wi*."

March 8. H. learned *r* on the 6th. This morning, finding he rem bered all he had learned, I selected the letters, *b*, *d*, *p*, *t*, *v*, and *z*, plac them in a line, and said to him, "I will show you how to spell the nam one of these letters, and then you may tell the rest yourself." I t placed an *e* after the *b*, and he immediately pointed at each letter and c ed it by name, as fast as he could speak. He then took the whole alpha in order, and told all the letters, (except *c* and *g*) without a single er He then took the Primer, and named the letters in *man*, *hat*, eighteen or twenty other words. He does not "pronounce" a word (a is called) after spelling it; and I intend he never shall. I should fear t the names of the letters would still prove a stumbling block to him.

March 9. H. learned *g* in the forenoon, and *c* this afternoon. He n knows the whole alphabet. The new method of spelling, from its nove gives him much pleasure.

March 10. It appears to me that H. spells as well by naming the l ters, as if he had practised this method from the beginning. I think can now spell any word readily in this manner, that he can spell with tickets. The last evening, I tried him, for the first time, in spelling al by sentences. I said to him, without giving him any opportunity to p pare for the exercise, "Spell, *how do you do.*" He readily named all letters in their proper order. "Spell, *come to me, my boy.*" "Spell, *and on my knee.*" "Spell, *what is your name.*" "Spell, *is it John.*" "Sp *yes sir.*" He spelled each sentence without a single error.

March 24. I have, this evening, taught H., in spelling, to say, "dou *e*," "double *o*," &c. instead of *e*, *e*; *o*, *o*, &c. in such words as *see*, *be* and *tell*. I deferred this till now, lest he should confound some of th *doubles* with the awkward "double u." (*w*.) He spells very well indeed

Here I will end my account of the experiment which gave birth to "First Lessons in Reading and Spelling." In that little book, I endeav ed to embody, so far as my limits would allow, those methods of teachi which this experiment had led me to consider as the best. In what called, in that book, inductive exercises, I hoped to secure, on paper, a in a small compass, the principal advantages of the ticket system. I du not swell the size of the book, by inserting directions for performing various evolutions on the ticket board; and apprehended, that those dir tions, if inserted, would not be generally followed. I flattered myself, deed, that it was unnecessary; hoping that my inductive, analytic, a synthetic exercises, would accomplish the same object with less trout So far, however, as I have had opportunity to try the book since it ca from the press, (and this opportunity, I acknowledge, has been but scan I have been led to believe, that notwithstanding the utility of those ex cises, the ticket system, or a part of it, or something equivalent to it, is s needed, in connection with those exercises, to lead the learner, at an ea

stage of his progress, into a knowledge of the usual sounds or powers of the alphabetic characters. Perhaps the best method for this purpose would be, — after taking a few lessons in reading significant words, in order to get a correct impression of the nature and use of reading, to commence the ticket system, and, in connection with this, to learn to call each letter by its *sound*, and not by its name. The vowels should be called by their *short* sounds. A little practice in separating and combining the elementary sounds of the duoliteral and triliteral combinations which I include in my ticket system, would probably so facilitate the learning of those combinations, as greatly to accelerate the child's progress. I have never yet tried the experiment, but intend to do it soon. It appears that something of this kind has been tried with success. (See Annals of Ed. for 1832, p. 441.)

Perhaps it may be inquired *how much time* was spent with H. daily. To this inquiry I cannot give a definite answer, as the portion of time spent with him was sometimes longer, and sometimes shorter, just as other engagements allowed, the nature of the lesson required, or the inclination of the teacher and pupil prompted. I presume that the time spent with him daily, on an average, did not exceed half an hour; and that the whole business of learning the *names* of the letters, occupied less than an hour. A child's improvement is not at all in proportion to the length of time that is devoted to him, but to the *manner* in which he is taught. I am confident, that a child, if properly taught, will learn more, by having fifteen minutes spent with him in a day, and being allowed to play the rest of the time, than he can at a common school, where the confinement and exercises occupy six hours in a day.

I will close with two remarks. One is, that written spelling is better than oral; the other is, that reading should precede spelling.

1. *Written spelling is better than oral.* The chief use of spelling is, to be able to spell correctly when a person has occasion to write, and that method of spelling, which will the most speedily and effectually accomplish this object, is certainly the best. A pupil, who spells little except in the oral method, is liable to form a habit of spelling by thinking wholly of sounds, and not at all of the written language. When he spells he thinks of the *names* of the letters and the *pronunciation* of the word; but he does not think of the *forms* of the letters, nor of the appearance of the word on paper. And I have no doubt, that this habit of confining the mind to the conception of sounds, may be, and often has been, carried so far, that the individual would find serious difficulty in spelling with his pen, those very words which he can readily spell with his lips. I have seen a little child, who could spell *cat*, *dog*, and perhaps forty other such words, orally, with the greatest readiness; but could not spell a single one of them by arranging the letters on a board. I have also known many youth at school, who could spell very well orally; but give them a pen to write a piece of composition, or to write a paragraph by dictation, and they would mis-spell a word in every line. Writing, and especially spelling with tickets, being a slower operation than oral spelling, causes the mind to dwell longer on the relative situation of every letter, and thus impresses the orthography of the word more deeply on the memory. I conclude, therefore, that spelling with tickets ought not to be laid aside, until the child is able to write with a pencil on a slate or with a pen on paper. And that when the learner has become able to write, he should be taught spelling chiefly by means of writing, in preference to the oral method.

2. *Reading should precede spelling.* By this, I do not mean that the child should be kept a long time in learning to read, before he commences spelling; but that he should never be set to spell a word, until he has first

become able readily to read that word. If we had a perfect alphabet, if our words were all spelled as they are pronounced, and if oral spelling consisted in uttering the elementary sounds of which each word is composed, it would probably be of very little consequence, whether the reading or the spelling of a word took the precedence. The process, in either case, would be so easy, as to give no trouble to either teacher or learner. But in order to practise written spelling, or in order to spell orally with such an alphabet and such an orthography as we now have, it is important that the ability to read a word, and a facility in doing this, should precede the attempt to spell it. The reason is, that reading is much *easier* than spelling; and that a person cannot spell by thinking how a word *sounds*, but he must recollect how it *looks*. The *eye*, therefore, as well as the ear, must become familiar with a word, before it can readily be spelled. One thing that renders reading easier than spelling, is, that perception is more vivid and distinct than conception. Hence it is easier to distinguish two similar words, as *cat* and *rat*, or *eat* and *tea*, when the eye is fixed upon them in reading, than it is to recollect the difference in their orthography when they are absent from the eye.

I go farther, and insist, that words ought to be read in *sentences*, before they are either read or spelled in columns, or in a detached form. By reading the words as they are connected in sentences, the child learns to attach a meaning to each; so that, when he comes to spell, each word will appear pleasant to him, from the acquaintance which he has formed with it, and from its suggesting some interesting trains of thought. Whereas, if he, in the first place, learned to read and spell the words in columns, they would appear to him void of interest, and almost void of meaning. He can also find out new and difficult words more easily, and remember them better, in the reading lesson, than in the columns used for spelling. In the reading lesson, the connection and the sense assist in deciphering a new or difficult word; and the association of ideas which he thus forms, assists in remembering it: while, in the columns, if they *precede* the reading lesson, there is no connection or sense to be perceived, nor any ground for an association of ideas, but mere proximity of place. J. L. P.

INTELLIGENCE.

Illinois Institute of Education.

We are happy to learn from the "Pioneer and Western Baptist," that a meeting of gentlemen from various parts of the State of Illinois, desirous of encouraging education, and especially common schools, in that State, was held at the State House in Vandalia, Feb. 13, 1833, when, after an address on education, by James Hall, Esq. an association was formed, to be called the Illinois Institute of Education.

The Constitution which was adopted requires that the members of the institution shall consist, 1. Of such persons as subscribe the constitution and pledge themselves to aid personally in obtaining and diffusing information on the subject, to aid in getting up and sustaining a school, other than the one in which they are personally interested as parents or guardians, or to contribute annually in money towards the incidental expenses of the Institution. 2. Of delegates, chosen by county, district, or branch associations or schools, and who shall be appointed to attend the meetings of this institution. 3. Of all teachers of primary and other schools, who will correspond with the Institute, and furnish annually or oftener, a report of the schools with which they are connected.

The officers of the Institute are a President, five Vice Presidents, a Recording Secretary, and as many Corresponding Secretaries as, at their annual meetings, (which are to be held on the Friday next following the first Monday in December,) they may think necessary; a Treasurer, and an Executive Committee. For the present year there are thirteen Corresponding Secretaries, from various parts of the State.

Friends of Education, teachers, and preachers of the Gospel, *throughout the State* are requested to correspond with John Russell, Esq. Post Master, Bluffdale, Greene County, and to furnish such information as may be in their power on the topics involved in the following questions. The information of ladies as well as gentlemen is requested. And gentlemen *out of the State* are also solicited to furnish the Institute with such facts and documents as may be needed, to be addressed to J. M. Peck, Post Master, Rock Spring, St Clair County.

Questions.

1. What kind of school-house have you? 2. How many months in a year is a school taught? 3. What is the cost of your school per annum, including pay of teacher, books, fuel, and repairs of school house? 4. What is the cost per scholar? 5. How many different scholars attend? 6. What is the average number of scholars? 7. How many children need aid from public funds? 8. How many schools in the county? 9. What branches are taught in your schools? 10. What books are used in spelling? In reading? In arithmetic? In geography? In grammar? 11. Are the elements of Natural History taught? 12. Does your teacher lecture the scholars on branches of science? 13. Does he ask questions on every reading lesson? 14. How many adults in your settlement who cannot read? 15. Have you a public library, and if so, how large, and under what regulations? 16. Could not a small library of useful books be had for the use of your school, and loaned to the scholars as rewards for proficiency in study, and good behavior? 17. Would you like to have a good teacher permanently settled with you, and would the school sup-

port him? 18. How would a circuit teacher do, who should conduct 4 or 5 schools, visiting these once a week, as teachers of singing do, and lecturing and explaining the branches taught? 19. What measures, in your opinion, or that of the people around you, should the state adopt in relation to the school funds? 20. Can you get up meetings of the people on court day, or any other convenient time, on the subject of education? 21. Will any gentlemen make public addresses, or deliver lectures to the people on the subject of education and schools? 22. What proportion of the families take newspapers, or any other periodical?

State Manual Labor Academy.

We trust it is not necessary to express the pleasure we feel in stating that legislative attention is at length directed to the union of labor and study, in the education of our citizens. The honor of the first effort for this important object is due to the House of Representatives of the State of Pennsylvania. By a resolution of that body in December last, the Committee on Education were directed to inquire into the expediency of establishing, at the expense of the State, a Manual labor Academy for the instruction of teachers for the public schools. In a recent and very interesting report, which we should be glad to present to our readers entire, the committee recommend the adoption of this plan on the following grounds, which they give as the result of very careful investigation.

First, That the expense of education, when connected with manual labor, judiciously directed, may be reduced at least one half.

Second, That the exercise of about three hours manual labor daily, contributes to the health and cheerfulness of the pupil, by strengthening and improving his physical powers, and by engaging his mind in useful pursuits.

Third, That so far from manual labor being an impediment in the progress of the pupil, in intellectual studies, it has been found that in proportion as one pupil has excelled another in the amount of labor performed, the same pupil has excelled the other, in equal ratio, in his intellectual studies.

Fourth, That manual labor institutions tend to break down the distinctions between rich and poor which exist in society, inasmuch as they give an almost equal opportunity of education to the poor by labor, as is afforded to the rich by the possession of wealth; and

Fifth, That pupils trained in this way, are much better fitted for active life, and better qualified to act as useful citizens, than when educated in any other mode — that they are better as regards physical energy, and better intellectually and morally.

In connection with the Report, they also present the form of an act for the establishment of a State Manual Labor Academy for the education of teachers, of which the following are some of the leading features.

It requires that as soon as the act shall have passed, the Governor shall appoint three competent citizens as "Commissioners of the State Manual Labor Academy," to serve *without pecuniary compensation* (which we fear is an error) for a term of two years. Their duty shall be to locate as soon as possible, in or near the borough of Harrisburg, a Manual Labor Academy, where agriculture and mechanical pursuits shall be connected with intellectual and moral instruction in the English and German languages. The course of instruction, methods of combining physical and intellectual education, and system of classification, are to be devised by the Commissioners, in conjunction with the Superintendent and Teachers, who are

to report progress and results, annually. The intention is to accommodate 200 pupils from all parts of the State, and if more apply than can be accommodated, they are to be received in proportion to the number of applicants from each county. The students are to be between the age of 16 and 21. As the expense of tuition is wholly paid by the State, they are not to remain more than two entire years; and in part compensation they are to become obligated to engage as teachers in some of the public schools for at least one year, or afterwards pay to the Commissioners, the cost of their education, over and above the value of their labor during the course.

We sincerely hope that the scheme will be adopted, and executed in a manner worthy of this great State; and especially that the plan and arrangements will be confided to men familiar with education in all its branches, physical, intellectual and moral.

Society for promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions.

We have just received a Report of this important institution. We have only room to say that it is full of important principles and facts, with which we hope to make our readers better acquainted hereafter. The answers of various gentlemen to the questions of the Society are highly interesting. We owe it to ourselves and to Mr Weld to say, that we have failed to reply to his circular only in consequence of the pressure of other labors in the same cause.

The American Lyceum.

The American Lyceum was formed in the spring of 1831. The first meeting was chiefly for organization, but was still, in some points, highly interesting. The second meeting was attended in the spring of 1832, by delegates from a number of Lyceums, and other similar institutions in various parts of the Union. Some valuable essays were presented to the Lyceum on subjects connected with education, which have since been published in a series of numbers as the "Proceedings of the Lyceum," and also circulated through the medium of the Annals of Education. There were also oral communications and discussions of such a character, that the interest of the members was sustained to the last, and the agreeable and profitable nature of the meeting was recognised unanimously.

The third annual meeting of the Lyceum is to be held in the city of New York on the third of May next. The more extended correspondence of the officers during the year past, with various institutions, and societies, and friends of education, both at home and abroad, lead, to the expectation that this meeting will not, at the least, be less interesting than the last. We are desired to request that all societies connected with the American Lyceum, or who may wish to become so, would send delegates to the next meeting, although they may not have received any more formal invitation. As great numbers of intelligent men visit New York at this season on account of business, or to attend the various anniversaries which follow that of the Lyceum, timely measures will easily secure the services of persons who may carry back a report of the proceedings of the Institution.

The great object of the Lyceum is the promotion of Education, in the diffusion of useful knowledge in schools, families, societies and communities, by formal courses of study, by books, lectures, &c. &c. for the solid benefit of mankind; and its plans, it is believed, require only to be understood, to be approved, encouraged and put in execution.

One of the most feasible branches of this plan is mentioned in the circular of invitation recently addressed by the Committee to societies and individuals in all parts of the country. They announce their intention of forming a collection of objects of Natural History in the city of New York, with the ultimate design of furnishing specimens, and if possible, small and useful cabinets, to all Lyceums connected with the parent society: and as a preparatory step, they invite those who possess such objects to forward them to New York to be placed in the common stock. They are particularly desirous of obtaining a large number of duplicates of well characterized and well preserved specimens, that they may conduct

a system of exchanges to more advantage, particularly with scientific individual abroad. Minerals being more easily preserved, and less exposed to injury by transportation, are chiefly in view; but specimens in all the departments of Natural History will also be highly prized. The Committee also intend to avail themselves of the peculiar advantages offered by the extensive commercial character of New York, by enlisting in their favor the zeal, intelligence and opportunities possessed by the numerous nautical men and travellers annually visiting the port; as well as those of officers of the army and navy, foreign correspondents and friends.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF COMMON SCHOOLS OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK; MADE TO THE LEGISLATURE JAN. 7, 1833.

This Report abounds, as usual, with interesting facts; and we cannot but regret that it is the last which we have reason to expect from Mr Flagg, and that he should find it best to retire from a station which he has filled with such ability. The following are some of the more important statements.

There were in the State of New York on the last day of Dec. 1831, which was the date of the latest reports on the number of children, 508,878 children over 5 and under 16 years of age; of whom 494,959 received instruction in district schools.

The whole number of organized school districts in the State is 9,600; of which 8,941 made their annual reports. These were kept open for the reception of pupils an average period of eight out of the twelve months. The number of new districts formed during the year was 267; and the number of those which made reports to the commissioners increased 106.

In each of six counties of the State, 15,000 scholars are annually instructed; in twentyfour, including the last, 10,000 each. Oneida county, with a population of 71,000 has more than 20,000 children between 5 and 16 years of age. Twenty counties have more than 200 district schools in each; several have 250; and three over 300. Oneida has 350. In each of 112 towns, more than 1000 children are annually instructed; in several, more than 1500; and in a few, more than 2000. Eightyone districts have 20 or more school districts in each; several of these more than 25, and a few more than 30.

The average number of organized districts in the State is nearly 12½ for each town. The average number of scholars instructed in those districts which made returns, was a fraction more than 55 for each school. In 1816, the number of organized districts was 2755, and the children taught according to the returns, was 140,106. The increase of those districts which have adopted the *system*, in 16 years, has been of course, 6845; and the increase in the number of children taught, in the same time, 354,453.

The productive capital of the New York school Fund now amounts to $1,735,175, 28 cents. The revenue it afforded for the year ending on the 30th of Sept. last, was $93,755 31. But the revenue for the coming year is estimated at $101,250; for the fund is increasing.

This revenue is paid over from the State Treasury to the Commissioners of the several towns in the State for the benefit of the schools; and it appears that so much is added from the general funds of the Treasury, as to make up the round sum $100,000. To this if we add $188,384 53 cents, the avails of a State Tax; and $17,198 25 which is derived from local funds possessed by some of the towns, we have an aggregate of $305,582 78: and this usually is denominated the 'public money.' It appears that 761 towns paid to their teachers during the past year, by way of subscription, voluntary contribution, or taxation in their several districts, $358,320 17; and this added to the public money, makes an aggregate amount of $663,902 95 paid for teachers' wages alone, with the exception of about $60,000 otherwise applied, in the city of New York.

Thus where the State or the school fund pays one dollar for teachers' wages, an inhabitant of a town, by a tax upon his property, pays $1 28; and by voluntary contribution in the school district where he resides, $3 58 for the same object, to which is added the proportion of 17 cents, derived from the *local* school fund. So that the State pays less than *one sixth*, and the inhabitants *five sixths* of the teacher's wages.

But the amount paid for teachers' wages is only about one half of the expense annually incurred for the support of common schools. The yearly value of the capital vested in school houses, the books, fuel, &c. is estimated at $462,579; which added to the amount paid for teachers' wages makes a grand total of $1,126,482 45 cents, expended annually in the State of New York on common schools. And the revenue of the school fund, that is, the $100,000 paid from the State Treasury pays a fraction less than *one eleventh* of the annual expenditures upon these schools. Before the last year it never has paid less than one tenth of the whole.

Thus, every year's experience of the tendency of the New York common school system should increase our confidence in the wisdom which devised a plan so excellent, and which makes a fund obviously beneficial to the State, instead of operating to paralyze the public mind on the subject of education, as has sometimes happened, especially in Connecticut.

In further confirmation of the same views, — if further confirmation were necessary, — the same report contains the following striking illustration of the evil which results from funds so large as to render individual effort almost unnecessary.

The seven counties of Cayuga, Chenango, Cortland, Madison, Onondaga, Seneca, and Tompkins, with local funds amounting in the whole to about $12,795, paid in the whole only about thirtyfour and six tenths cents, to each inhabitant, upon an average, for the support of common schools; while the seven counties of Jefferson, Erie, Ontario, Duchess, Suffolk, Livingston, and Yates, *with no funds at all*, paid thirtyseven and one tenth cents to an inhabitant.

Nothing can be more clear, from this comparison, than that the possession of a liberal fund has the effect of lessening the burthens of the inhabitants of the districts, but not of *increasing* the sum total, paid for the support of the schools.

The Superintendent appears to regard the incorporated academies, of which there are about 55 in the state, as destined ultimately to become the appropriate seminaries for preparing teachers for common schools; and also urges with great earnestness, the importance of employing competent teachers of common schools, at much more liberal prices than heretofore. He urges, too, a more rigid discharge of duty on the part of the inspectors of the schools, and, — as we are very happy to see, — expresses a deep conviction that something ought to be done to provide the means of instruction for the inmates of manufacturing establishments.

Arrangements have been made for furnishing every school district in the State with a copy of Hall's Lectures on School Keeping: a measure of undoubted importance, and worthy of being imitated in other states.

Society for promoting Female Education in Greece.

We have just received an interesting pamphlet by Mrs Willard, Principal of the excellent Female Seminary at Troy, New York, containing a series of addresses on the advancement of female education, especially in Greece. The appeals on behalf of the sex in that unhappy country as well as in our own, are powerful; and we are gratified to find that a society of ladies has been formed in Troy for the establishment of a school at Athens, for the education of Female Teachers, under the direction of Messrs Robertson, King, and Hill. We consider the object of prime importance to the moral and social regeneration of Greece. We rejoice to see so much zeal enlisted in its favor, and we hope it will excite the sympathies, and call forth the charities of the favored females of our country everywhere. Mrs Willard has presented to the Society the copyright of an unpublished journal in Europe.

Juvenile Concerts.

During the last month, the first Juvenile Concert under the direction of the Boston Academy of Music, was given by the pupils of the Professor, Mr Mason, accompanied by a brief address, explanatory of the objects of the institution. The audience was large, and apparently much gratified. The interest excited was so great that a repetition was demanded, and the assembly was even larger than at first, and apparently not less gratified. Gratuitous tickets were presented by the Academy to the members of the Legislature, the Teachers and School Committee, and Clergy of the city, with a view of engaging their interest in the

introduction of musical instruction into common schools. In addition to a variety of social and moral hymns, a series of extemporaneous exercises, in rhythm and melody were performed, in which the pupils sung each note, as called for by the teacher, with as much correctness as an ordinary school boy would pronounce the letters of the alphabet; and preserved the time with an accuracy rarely found in our church choirs. We believe no doubt could remain in the observer of the exhibitions, that it was both practicable and important to introduce vocal music as a branch of common school education. The efforts and funds of the Boston Academy of Music, are devoted exclusively to this object, and they have now resolved to employ a second professor.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN NEW YORK.

At a late annual meeting of the New York State Agricultural Society, a Committee who had been appointed for the purpose, at the previous anniversary, made a very able report, recommending the establishment of a School of Agriculture for the State, on an extensive and liberal scale. They also presented a plan for such an institution, with an estimate of the expenses necessary to establish and sustain it. We hope to be able, to give it a more extended notice hereafter.

JOURNAL OF THE INSTITUTE AT FLUSHING, LONG ISLAND.

We have been much interested in this journal, which is intended to develope the views and plans of the teachers of this school. The essays on education are marked by excellent exhibitions of the importance of moral and religious education, and the productions of the pupils contained in each number are very creditable to the institution.

NOTICES.

Tyronis Thesaurus, or Entick's Latin English Dictionary, with a Classical Index of the Preterperfects and Supines of Verbs, designed for the use of Schools. By WM. CRAKELT, A. M. Carefully revised and augmented throughout, by the Rev. M. G. SARJANT, B. A. of Queen's College, Oxford. From the Latest London Edition, with numerous additions and improvements. Baltimore: W. & J. Neal, 1833. Square 12mo. pp. 620.

The peculiar value and appropriate use of the "Tyronis Thesaurus," are too well known to classical instructors to require any explanation from us, and the character of the present edition is fully described in the title Its size and execution, the marks of quantity, the table of preterperfects and supines, and the compendious classical dictionary it contains, must render it a most acceptable substitute for Ainsworth's octavo, with young pupils.

Select Classics, Vol. I.— Cicero on the Immortality of the Soul, or Questionum Tusculanarum Lib. I, with Notes and an Appendix by M. STUART, Professor of Sac. Lit. in the Theol. Sem. at Andover. Andover: Flagg, Gould & Newman, 1833. pp. 206.

In our country, classical knowledge is buried or lost, by most of our collegiate students. This is doubtless owing, in part, to the imperfect manner in which it is acquired; but chiefly, we believe, to the fact that some of the finest authors are studied before they can be understood or relished, and are associated only with the drudgery of tasks, and that no others are generally within the student's reach, which will lead him on, either by the pleasure or profit they offer. The plan of Professor Stuart to publish a series of select classics with suitable explanatory notes, which shall render it as easy and agreeable and profitable to continue his reading in Latin, as in English authors, is most happily devised to remedy this evil; and we know not that a better selection could have been made, than of one of the master-pieces of ancient Natural Theology. The notes and analyses of

each section will render it easy, even to the Tyro; and this treatise, followed by the appendix of Prof. Stuart on the immateriality and immortality of the soul, will better repay perusal, than many of the modern treatises on the same topic.

Grecian History, adapted to the use of Schools and Young Persons. Illustrated by Maps and Engravings. By the author of "American Popular Lessons," &c. New York: Roe Lockwood, 1833. 12mo. pp. 384.

We find in this work the same simplicity of thought and expression which have procured so general approbation for the "American Popular Lessons." It is preferable to any history of Greece which we have seen for the young, in being based upon Mitford's recent work, and in treating history as a means of improving the youthful character. With the last purpose in view, the writer presents with more detail those characters whose influence is likely to be favorable on the mind, rather than those whose only claim is founded on talents or false glory. She also aims continually at comparing the character, operations and influence of Paganism and Christianity, and thus showing the pupil one of the strongest evidences of the truth of the Scriptures. The selection and arrangement of materials is evidently made with care and judgment. The style is clear and simple, without being puerile. The terms of antiquity and art are not left to the pupil's conjecture, nor yet merely *defined;* but distinctly *described.* The work is fitted to draw the young reader onward, by the perspicuous and interesting chain of narrative and description, instead of repulsing him by dry details, or obscure statements; and we hope will at least, exclude Goldsmith from our schools. We could wish for a more useful and less warlike selection of cuts; and we think the reader would expect many more, from the title.

The Second Book of History, including the Modern History of Europe, Africa and Asia. Illustrated by Engravings and sixteen Maps, and designed as a sequel to the "First Book of History, by the author of Peter Parley's Tales." Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832. 18mo. pp. 180.

This work is in all respects formed upon the model of the "First Book," except that the *style* is adapted to more advanced pupils. The narrative is perspicuous and interesting; but we think there is a defect not usually found in this series of books — we mean the attempt to introduce too many events, rather than to make the pupil familiar with the most important. We admit, however, the difficulty of adjusting the point with accuracy. We regret most, that there is so little of the spirit which we have noticed in the Grecian history — so little to subserve the great end of historical studies, the improvement of the character. We hope the taste of the day will not only justify, but demand more of this, in every school book. The cuts are not so well executed as in most works of this series.

The Child's Geology, by the author of the Child's Botany. Revised and enlarged by Mrs Almira L. Phelps, author of Familiar Lectures on Botany, Dictionary of Chemistry, Lectures on Education, &c. G. H. Peck & Co. Brattleboro'; Carter, Hendee & Co. Boston; F. J. Huntington, Hartford. 12mo. pp. 132.

We are pleased with this as an introduction to Geology. We cannot, however, consider it as having a right to the title of "The Child's Geology;" for we think, there is either too much of the science or too little of explanation for this purpose. For the higher classes of schools, already familiar with Geography, it may be made very interesting and useful; and like every work of the kind should be illustrated by a collection of specimens. The spirit of the work is excellent; some of the digressions seem to us of doubtful utility.

The Geography of the Heavens, or Familiar Instructions for finding the visible stars or constellations, accompanied by a Celestial Atlas. By E. H. Burritt, A. M. Hartford: F. J. Huntington, 1833. 18mo. pp. 264.

We rejoice at the appearance of a work which has been much wanted, on a subject too much neglected. How few, even of our graduates, are familiar with the heavens; and yet, without this knowledge, it is impossible to understand or trace the most magnificent display of Divine power which is presented to the eye of man — the movements of the heavenly bodies. The volume contains a description of the situation and magnitude of the stars, their arrangement in constellations, with extensive and interesting illustrations from mythology, history and poetry. The Atlas contains seven maps. Two of these exhibit the constellations which surround the Poles; those around the North Pole being always visible to us and those at the opposite being never visible in this latitude. Four contain the constellations between these, which are visible in the respective quarters of the year; and so constructed as to show what stars are on the meridian at nine o'clock on each evening of the year: The last map is a planisphere of the whole heaven.

The style of the work is clear and interesting. The maps appear to have been constructed with care, and the whole is beautifully executed. This, or something equivalent, ought to be in every school in our country.

The Hero of Macedon, or History of Alexander the Great, viewed in the light of the Gospel. By William Ladd, author of The French Soldier. Boston: James Loring. 18mo. pp. 108.

We welcome little works of this character, which furnish us historical narratives, in place of fiction for the amusement of children; and at the same time give them the same practical influence, by bringing the actions of the heroes and statesmen whose glory dazzles the eye of youth, and often cherishes the most dangerous passions, to the same standard by which they are required to regulate their own conduct. We know not how the worthy author could better promote the noble cause of "Peace" to which he has devoted himself; and we earnestly recommend this little work, as well as "The French Soldier," to parents who wish to cherish the spirit of peace in their children.

Depping's Evening Entertainments, comprising delineations of the Manners and Customs of Nations. A new edition, enlarged and improved, with twenty engravings on wood, by Atherton. Philadelphia: Alexander Towar, 1833. 12mo. pp. 244.

The original work, of which this is a new edition, improved by the author, is too well known to need our commendation. We think it is decidedly improved in its present form, and one of the best exhibitions of the character and peculiarities of our race, for children, with which we are acquainted. The engravings are beautiful and the style of execution generally excellent.

An Introduction to the Study of Botany; in which the science is illustrated by examples of native and exotic Plants, and explained by means of numerous wood cuts. Designed for the use of Schools and Private Students. By J. L. Comstock, M. D. Author of a system of Natural Philosophy, Elements of Chemistry, &c. Second edition. Hartford: Published by D. F. Robinson & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 260.

This work possesses an advantage over any we have seen in the simplicity of its arrangement. Instead of the usual method of beginning with the classification of plants, thus discouraging the learner with scientific terms and arrangement, the inductive system is strictly adopted, first giving the descriptions of the several parts of a plant. Each of these is accompanied with a cut on the same page, a plan, in our opinion, preferable to the usual mode of grouping them together. The study is made immediately practical and interesting by introducing particulars concerning the culture of some of the common vegetables, and some curious and useful notices of foreign ornamental plants; and botanical terms are rendered more intelligible by having their derivation and origin given. The execution of the book is good. The cuts are remarkably distinct and accurate, and we cheerfully recommend it to the notice of teachers.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

MAY, 1833.

Art. I. — On Vocal Music As a Branch of Common Education.

Communicated to the American Lyceum, by Wm. C. Woodbridge.

Our feelings have been so deeply engaged in the introduction of vocal music as a branch of education, and we have been so anxious to see a store of suitable materials prepared for young musicians, which might prevent its being misdirected, that we have feared to intrude it too much upon the public. But the deep and extending interest in the subject, which is now excited among the friends of education, and the formation of an institution devoted to it, require that it should receive more attention. We have waited, in the hope that something would appear, from those more competent to treat this subject. But we are disappointed; and the misapprehensions which have been entertained by some concerning the views of those engaged in this cause, call for an immediate and full account of our opinions and reasons, although we shall be compelled to repeat much that we have previously said on the subject.

The power of music over the human heart is recorded in every period of history; and has been employed in exciting every class of feelings, from the most elevated to the most debased. Its rich and varied stores furnish the means of cherishing the devotion of the pious, or the passions of the sensualist; of rousing anger to vio-

lence, or of melting benevolence into tears. As we observed in a lecture delivered on this subject;

"The Creator seems to have formed an immediate connection between the ear and the heart. Every feeling expresses itself by a tone, and every tone awakens again the feeling from which it sprung. Hence children and passionate persons increase their sorrow or their anger by cries, or heighten their joys by shouts;* hence the instinctive huzzas of a joyous crowd; and to this we may trace the origin of vocal music. The feelings of the more passionate, produced a succession of varying sounds. The ears of the more sensitive perceived these variations, and their skill was employed to imitate them, in order to awaken anew the same feelings, in connection with the rude recitations of traditional history, or the more refined melody of the poetic tales of Bards or Troubadours. They roused to war, and soothed to peace — they kindled anger, and awakened joy, and calmed the paroxysms of sorrow and passion—and the influence of David's harp, and the effects of songs in the battles of the barbarous Germans, and the melting power of the sweet *Ranz des Vaches* on the Swiss soldier, would seem to indicate that the tale of Orpheus is but half a fable."

No one doubts the force of eloquence, or hesitates to admit that it is one of the most powerful engines which we possess for influencing the minds of masses of men. And what is vocal music, but eloquence in its most attractive and fascinating form? Not that eloquence which is heard but once, and dies upon the ear, but that which leaves such an impress upon the memory and heart, that we can ourselves repeat it, that we are almost irresistibly led to imitate it, and thus redouble its influence, until it forms a part of the current of our own feelings and thoughts.

Its power has been perceived and employed, by those who have exerted most influence upon the human mind. The public speaker adds energy to his argument, and force to his appeals, by the variety of his tones, and the more completely he can invest his words with the charm of music, the more will he enchain the attention, and influence the feelings of his auditors. The sacred songs of Luther were one of the most efficient means he employed, in forwarding the reformation. The leaders of political agitation and revolution have seldom failed to resort to this, as one of their most powerful auxiliaries. The few patriotic songs of the American revolution, if we may credit the testimony of those who felt and witnessed their influence, were often the means of rousing indolence to action, and despondency to cheerfulness. The revolutionary music of

* We cannot omit, on such an occasion, the important maxims suggested in educating ourselves and others. He who governs his voice, will find it easier to govern his feelings; and he who allows himself to use habitually the tones of passion, will increase its strength.

France, excited the populace, according to its character, at some times to the noblest efforts, and at others, to the most savage deeds. The bacchanalian employs it, to encourage himself and his companions in their brutal revelry, and the sensualist succeeds by its aid, in concealing or gilding the deformity of his designs, and enlisting the unwary heart, or gratifying the unholy passions, through the medium of the ear.

"It has in this way been made the handmaid of vice and the companion of depravity, and its influence has been fearful. It should be converted to a better use."

So well established were these principles in the view of one who was well acquainted with human nature, that he formed them into a maxim which is repeated to this day, by all who have examined the subject, "Let me make the ballads of a nation, and you may make their laws." As we formerly remarked —

"The maxim is one of obvious soundness. The law is but seen in shadow, and its threatenings heard, as distant thunder. Even the pulpit brings forth its instructions only weekly; and the preacher often writes upon a sand beach, from which the returning tides of the business of the week speedily efface almost every vestige of his instructions. But the ballad is fixed in the memory, by the association of rhyme and sound: it is constantly brought home to the heart by the sweet influence of melody; and while the law is out of view, and the sermon forgotten, it repeats and reiterates its impressions, until it penetrates the hardest heart, and fastens itself in its strongest feelings. Let us but have hundreds of hymns, not merely sacred, but *moral*, *social*, and *national*, which shall convey elevated sentiments and stimulate to noble acts, and we send forth so many little messengers of good, which can penetrate even through the walls of a castle, and be conveyed on the wings of the wind, to every quarter of the globe. Some of the best European airs have been found by travellers transported even to the centre of Africa."

That those who aim at the improvement of the human character, whether in the pupils of a school, or the members of a community, or the citizens of a State, should leave an instrument of so great power to be the mere amusement of a drawing-room, or to be monopolized in its most cultivated forms as the means of concealing the vices of a theatre, and drawing greater numbers within the reach of its corrupting influence, seems like a preposterous waste of human power. It is as if the steam engine should be left, only to drive the toy-coach of a child, or to stamp the coin of the counterfeiter.

Many will consider this view of the subject as extravagant, and will only smile at the enthusiasm of him, who believes in this almost magic influence of sounds. So were those once regarded who believed in the power of steam, as we now see it every day exhibited.

Who, at first sight would suspect, in the lazy vapor that rises from the surface of a lake, or the current of steam that issues from a tea-kettle, a power which, if properly confined and directed, is sufficient to rend asunder the strongest receptacle which man can construct, and remove obstacles which human power could surmount in no other way? It is within the memory of many of our readers, that even the proposition of Fulton, to employ steam in moving boats, was received with incredulity and ridicule, by a large part of the community. Yet we find this agent, in the hands of the skilful, performing the labor of hundreds of animals, and thousands of men, with a force which is irresistible, and a certainty which is the subject of mathematical calculation; and placing in the hands of a child, power which scarcely yields to that of the winds or the waves. We see it under the direction of the ignorant or the ill designing, spreading desolation all around. That a similar power is inherent in music, however concealed or forgotten it may be, at this time and in our country, will, we are persuaded, be as clearly seen at some future day. It seems to us even now capable of demonstration, as complete as that which was furnished by the experiments and models that proved the power of steam. In addition to all the records of history, we ourselves often see the stout heart melt, and the rigid countenance relax, and even a tear tremble in the eye, at the plaintive tones or the more plaintive song of a child, when the simple words, without the accompanying tones, would scarcely have moved a feeling. We find whole assemblies roused even to ecstacy; and who that has witnessed the execution of sacred music, in its appropriate style, has not seen an audience sometimes hushed to silence, and sometimes electrified with feeling, all as one man, by its solemn strains? Who can believe that a means producing such immediate and powerful effects upon the feelings of individuals and assemblies of men, might not, with suitable direction and *repetition*, be made to exert as striking an influence upon their *characters*; and why is not the inference as certain, as it was that the steam which will move a model engine for an hour, may be employed to propel a ship across the ocean?

But we are not confined to mere theory on this subject. We were led to the conclusions and feelings we have expressed, by the observation of facts. We had indeed been accustomed to hear vocal and instrumental music daily, in our early years, and to listen to the best performances of social circles and public assemblies; but we could only say —

"We listen, we criticise, and sometimes we are delighted with music; but how seldom do we feel all that the melody is designed to express! Whether it be in the solemn service, or the social circle, it is too often retained, like some old servant, from mere habit, and is

generally heard with listless indifference, or positive uneasiness, even by ears that are not tortured with its jarring notes. It sometimes excites a smile, when it is intended to call forth a tear; and its joyous notes are too often, only a discordant clamor of voices."

We regarded the accounts of its power, rather as the dreams of poetry, than the conclusions of philosophy, until we *felt* it in the heart-swelling music of the bands of Europe, in the fascinating but corrupting strains of the Opera, and the overpowering chants of the Vatican. But we still regarded its cultivation to this extent, with apprehension and disgust; for we saw it prostituted, as we had seen it too much in our own country, either by using it to cover and point a song, whose sentiments would not be tolerated in any other form, or by placing the most noble, or the most solemn strains, in the mouths of those who never felt a corresponding emotion. We saw men engaged in pouring forth this eloquence, who performed their task with the same feelings with which a mercenary soldier would fight the battles of any country that would give him bread—equally prepared to chant the sufferings of the Saviour, or to sing the song of the sensualist.

But we found music of an elevating and improving character, in other hands. We found that in addition to sacred and devotional music, there was a large collection adapted to social life, fitted to cheer the moments of weariness, to cultivate the social and patriotic feelings, and elevate the moral taste, without suggesting one evil thought, or exciting one improper emotion. We had been accustomed to regard the regular pursuit of music — especially of instrumental music, — as only suited to professional musicians or to females; and in our sex, as the mark of a trifling or a feminine mind. It was a new surprise therefore, to find it the companion of science and philosophy; to hear it declared by one learned professor the most valuable, nay, an indispensable relaxation to his mind; and to find another, in one of the most distinguished universities of Europe, devoting his leisure to the gratuitous instruction of some of its students.

Our interest in this subject was redoubled, and music was presented in a new light, on visiting the interior of Europe. It was with no small degree of surprise and delight, that we found it in Germany and Switzerland, *the property of the people*, cheering their hours of labor, elevating their hearts above the objects of sense, which are so prone to absorb them, and filling the periods of rest and amusement with social and moral songs, in place of noise, and riot, and gambling.

But we were touched to the heart, when we heard its cheering, animating strains echoing from the walls of a school-room, and enlivening the school boy's hours of play — when we listened to

the peasant childrens' songs as they went out to their morning occupation, and saw their hearts enkindled to the highest tones of music and poetry, by the setting sun, or the familiar objects of nature, each of which was made to echo some truth, or point to some duty, by an appropriate song.

We have heard them singing the "Harvest hymn," as they went forth before daylight to gather in the grain. We have seen them assembled in groups at night, chanting a hymn of praise for the glories of the heavens, or joining in some patriotic chorus, or some social melody, instead of the frivolous and corrupting conversation, which so often renders such meetings the source of evil. In addition to this, we visited communities where the youth had been trained from their childhood to exercises in vocal music, of such a character as to elevate, instead of debasing the mind, and have found that it served in the same manner, to cheer their social assemblies, in place of the noise of folly, or the poisoned cup of intoxication. We have seen the young men of such a community, assembled to the number of several hundreds, from a circuit of 20 miles; and instead of spending a day of festivity in rioting and drunkenness, pass the whole time, with the exception of that employed in a frugal repast, and a social meeting, in a concert of social, moral and religious hymns, and devote the proceeds of the exhibition to some object of benevolence. We could not but look back at the contrast presented on similar occasions in our own country, with a blush of shame. We have visited a village, whose whole moral aspect was changed in a few years by the introduction of music of this character, even among adults; and where the aged where compelled to express their astonishment at seeing the young abandon their corrupting and riotous amusements, for this delightful and improving exercise.

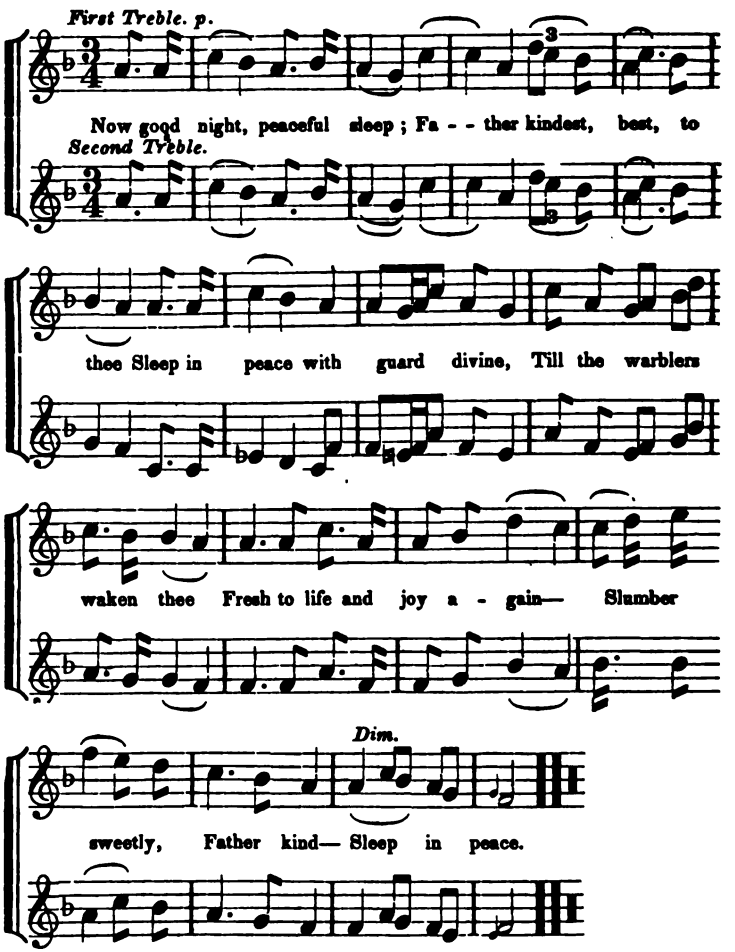
It was then that we felt what we formerly expressed, concerning the influence which similar measures might exert on our own population;

"Could we but divest it of the artificial character which a false taste has given it, and bring it back to its native simplicity; could we but employ the voice of childhood in its execution, and gradually train up the whole community to join in harmonious chorus, we might then hope to restore to music its pristine beauty, and its soul-subduing power. It might again soothe to rest the sons of sorrow. It might assist in subduing to peace, the unsated cravings of the lust for gold, the devouring rage of ambition, and the ferocious spirit of party that infests our land. It might do much to calm the demoniac passions, and overcome the grovelling propensities which follow in their train. It might assist in elevating our hearts to the Author of our being, and invigorate us in our progress toward heaven, and give us many a foretaste of its joys on earth."

We could not but ask ourselves the question; Shall that which is deemed as essential to the education of the poor in Germany, as reading, be thought too expensive a superfluity for the American people? Shall an acquisition which is found perfectly within the reach of European peasants, which serves to cheer their hours of fatigue and elevate their minds, and soften and purify their hearts, be considered too difficult or too refined, for the yeomanry of the United States?

But we were still more surprised at the knowledge of the *science*, which we discovered in the common people. In our early years, we were anxious to understand and possess this power of amusing and exciting, which to some extent we felt. In common with our companions, we attended many successive "quarters at singing school," the only privilege allowed to our nobler sex. But there we found ourselves called upon to perform certain mechanical movements, at the sight of certain signs, while we understood neither the reason nor the connection, of our successive manœuvres of the hand and voice. We attained, in this way, skill enough to amuse ourselves — to make us wish for more — and especially to make us desire the power of self-improvement. But the whole subject was wrapped up in a mass of technical terms, to which even our knowledge of Latin and Greek gave us no clue. We asked questions, — when we knew how to ask them, — in vain; and we were compelled at length to the mortifying conclusion that the subject was too profound for our comprehension, and that it was reserved for the favored few who possessed the "musical ear," to fathom its mysteries. We gave it up in despair, and left the school with little more than the cabalistical key to this noble science, which is found in the table of flats and sharps—"If F be sharp, Mi is in F,"—and the other rules and definitions of our venerable singing books. What then was our astonishment, at finding this mystery of mysteries perfectly level to the comprehension of every boy, in a German or Swiss school, and to see them even write music — yes, *write* music — an acquisition which we and our school-fellows would have deemed a certain evidence of witchcraft in a school-boy; not from dictation only, but from original conception, with nearly as much ease, and as I was told, and should have judged from the performance of these airs, with nearly as much correctness as they could write German. We have been fortunate enough to obtain copies of several songs composed by peasant girls in a village in Switzerland, whose only knowledge of music was derived from the occasional instruction of their pastor, and as an evidence of our assertion, we present the following expression of filial affection by one of these pupils to her second father;

THE CHILD'S GOOD NIGHT.—By a Swiss Peasant Girl.



We inquired eagerly into the method of instruction, and some little light dawned even upon our mind. We visited Nageli, and spent some time in the family of Pfeiffer, the fathers of the new system of instruction; and although ill health forbade us to attempt any practical acquisitions, we gained, in a few conversations with Pfeiffer, more distinct conceptions of the nature and signs of music, than in all our "quarters at singing school." We found that the science was as simple in its elements, as it is delightful in its influence. We discovered, that, instead of being a mere round of me-

chanical efforts, requiring what is vulgarly called "a knack" at the art, which "*came to*" the possessor almost without his knowledge, its principles were more fixed and rational, and its signs more intelligible and uniform, than those of the English tongue; and its practice even more easy than the pronunciation of a new language. We became satisfied that this mystery of mysteries, this luxury among human enjoyments, was within the reach of all who were not utterly destitute of the power of distinguishing sounds. We were convinced that vocal music was one of the most important branches of national education, especially among a free people; and from this moment we resolved that we would never cease to urge this subject upon our countrymen, until vocal music should become a branch of instruction in every school in the United States. We have labored to the utmost which the pressure of other duties would allow us, for this object, and have been happy enough to see it taken up by other and abler hands, by whose means, we trust, it will be sooner or later accomplished.

We received from Professor Pfeiffer a copy of his valuable work; and procured every other we found, adapted to promote the improved method of instruction, or to furnish the appropriate kind of music. We were fortunate enough to find, at our former residence, a teacher who had made many advances towards a rational method of teaching — Mr Ives, now of Philadelphia, — and who heard and transcribed, with apparent delight, the developments of elementary music, translated in daily portions from the system of Pfeiffer. We had soon the happiness of seeing them carried into effect, by his gratuitous and zealous labors in several schools, by means of the lessons and cards prepared by Nageli; and in a few months, we heard juvenile performances and juvenile concerts, which reminded us of the schools that had first excited our attention. The course of instruction was divested of the mystery and dryness which is usually found; the children were more deeply interested than in any of their studies, and not less successful; although the progress in the mere mechanical knowledge, was not, perhaps, so striking as it often is. The attempt was made to teach the elements scientifically to a class in an infant school; and so complete was the success of Mr Ives in this plan, that a professional musician, who heard them after a few weeks' instruction, observed, in a letter on this subject; "I entered upon the examination of the system with some prejudices; but the more I examined it, the more I was convinced of its superiority over the common method, especially in the simple manner in which the principles of music are presented to the mind of a child. The pupils of the infant school which I visited, after a short period of instruction in rhythm (time) only, surpassed in accuracy of time our ordinary choirs

of singers." We have since seen and heard, with increasing pleasure, the success of Mr Ives in training large classes in Philadelphia, whose performance has produced general delight; and have been gratified by the appearance of the Elementary Singing-Book, in which the general principles of Pfeiffer are embodied. The contrast of the system with those of our former singing-books, in point of simplicity and interest, is striking.

In 1830, we were permitted to present this subject in a lecture, before the American Institute of Instruction, at its first anniversary. More than one teacher, we are informed, was led to introduce music into his school, as we have since heard, with happy results, by the simple exhibition of the principles and facts we had learned, and the interesting performances of some of the German airs by a small juvenile class, taught by Mr Mason, of Boston.

This able musician embraced with interest the Pestalozzian system of instruction; and, with a magnanimity which deserves imitation, acknowledged himself indebted to it for the only rational method of teaching, and the best style of juvenile music. He has taught large classes of children gratuitously, with a success to which the crowded audiences at the Juvenile Concerts, first brought forward by him in this city, bear ample testimony. The publication of the Juvenile Lyre, by Messrs Mason & Ives, containing selections from the German juvenile music, with original compositions in the same spirit, has furnished a supply of appropriate hymns and songs, which are alike removed from gloominess and trifling in their character; and has put it in the power of every teacher, familiar with music, to make it at once the means of social and moral, as well as religious improvement, to his pupils. In this book, we have an important deficiency in some measure supplied. Hitherto, our collections of music have been like our ancient village libraries, which presented no medium between "The Bible," and "The Arabian Nights Entertainments." It has hence been thought necessary, to employ the name of the Deity, and the solemn strains of devotion, in the mechanical repetition of musical lessons; as it once was to use the bible as the child's alphabet and spelling-book — a method which, if it be not a profanation of sacred things, is at least calculated to diminish our reverence for them, and to impair or destroy the influence of sacred poetry upon the heart. The Juvenile Lyre not only furnishes other lessons for practice, but it makes vocal music the companion of the fireside and the play-ground, as well as of the hours of worship; and enables the child to use this delightful language, in expressing all the proper feelings of his buoyant heart, as well as those which are devotional.

Other schools have been organized, and concerts given, in Boston, by Mr Kingsley, (who adopted this method of instruction during

his connection with Mr Ives) under the direction of the Boston Sunday School Society. These have also been attended with interest, and have served to extend the conviction, that it is both practicable and important to instruct every child in the community in vocal music. Similar schools have been formed, we believe, in the State of New-York, by Mr Hastings, a musician whose character and taste are well known; and other experiments and efforts have been made, of which we regret that we are not able to furnish the details.

But we have been most encouraged by the formation of an institution, devoted to the promotion of this object, in the city of Boston, on a plan which we could wish to see adopted in other parts of our country. A number of gentlemen who were convinced of the necessity of reform and improvement in the public taste, on the subject of music, have been long engaged in promoting this object, silently but constantly, by their efforts and their contributions. They became at length satisfied, that its importance demanded the entire efforts of one or more individuals; and have formed themselves into an association, under the title of "The Boston Academy of Music," for the purpose of securing and sustaining competent professors, who should be devoted exclusively to this object.

As this association does not consist of professional musicians, it differs entirely from those which have been formed for the purpose of musical exhibitions, whose usefulness, however, in elevating the standard of musical taste, they fully appreciate, and would by no means diminish. Nor does it attempt, particularly, the improvement of its own members. Their object is rather to *diffuse the knowledge* of music, in its most beneficial forms, than to advance the *science*. For this purpose they engaged, on their own responsibility, to support a professor, whose time shall be devoted to the instruction of pupils, the training of teachers in this method of instruction, and the preparation of such elementary books as may be necessary, to make it a subject of common school instruction.

Mr Mason, the gentleman to whose unwearied and gratuitous labors the public are indebted for the first concerts alluded to in Boston, was appointed to this office. He has now several juvenile schools in operation, and has been engaged to give instruction in some of the largest and most popular schools in the city. As soon as the funds and circumstances of the Academy shall warrant it, it is intended to employ other professors and teachers. A second distinguished musician, Mr Webb of Boston, has already been appointed; and the whole income which may be derived from schools, concerts, subscriptions, and donations, will be devoted to the extension of a knowledge of vocal music among the teachers and schools of our country.

"The immediate object," as we have formerly observed, "to be accomplished by making vocal music a branch of common education, is to cultivate one of the faculties which our Creator, in his wisdom, has seen fit to bestow upon us. To neglect it, is to imply that it was unnecessary — that it is useless. It is to treat a noble gift in a manner which, in any other case, would be considered as disrespectful and ungrateful."

At the same time, singing is an important exercise to the lungs themselves. It may, indeed, be carried to excess, and injury has doubtless been done by singing too much, at improper hours of the day, or in a state of health which did not admit it. Pfeiffer recommends, that singing lessons should not be given before nine o'clock in the morning, nor after seven in the evening; never immediately before or after a full meal, nor after any other fatiguing exercise; and that in every lesson, one or more periods of rest should be allowed. He urges, as a very important caution, that the voice should not be exercised in singing, when, from the state of health, or the period of life, it is changed from its usual tones; and that all effort should be avoided, until it is again in a settled and healthy state. He states, that he has known voices ruined entirely, by neglecting this caution. He deems it also of great importance to watch those who have feeble lungs, to prevent them from singing after they are fatigued, and to suspend their lessons occasionally, if the effect is doubtful.

But how seldom do we find professed singers suffering from weakness of lungs? We have known more than one individual of feeble lungs, who derived strength from the use of the flute, and well regulated vocal exercises. The danger is much greater, as an able medical man has stated, from occasional efforts like those of the clergyman, than from habitual action to the extent of the power we possess; and the same author recommends the daily use of the voice as a most important means of *preventing* the evil effects of public speaking. Indeed we can discover no reason why the established principle, that every organ is strengthened by exercise, should not be correct when applied to the lungs.

But we cannot omit here the testimony of an eminent physician, which we have formerly quoted.

"It was the opinion of Dr Rush that young ladies especially, who by the customs of society are debarred from many kinds of salubrious exercise, should cultivate singing, not only as an accomplishment, but as a means of preserving health. He particularly insists that it should never be neglected in the education of females; and states, that besides its salutary operation in enabling them to soothe the cares of domestic life, and quiet sorrow by the united assistance of the sound and sentiment of a properly chosen song, it has a still more

direct and important effect. 'I here introduce a fact,' he remarks, 'which has been suggested to me by my profession; and that is, that the exercise of the organs of the breast by singing, contributes very much to defend them from those diseases to which the climate and other causes expose them. The Germans are seldom afflicted with consumptions, nor have I ever known but one instance of spitting blood among them. This I believe is in part occasioned by the strength which their lungs acquire, by exercising them frequently in vocal music; for this constitutes an essential branch of their education. The music-master of our academy has furnished me with an observation still more in favor of this opinion. He informed me that he had known several instances of persons, who were strongly disposed to consumption, who were restored to health by the exercise of their lungs in singing.'"

While these are the immediate objects in the practice of vocal music, the *ultimate object* is that for which this faculty was bestowed. It is to acquire the most expressive language for the utterance of feeling — a language in which we may lift up our hearts to God, and pour them forth in our hours of solitude, or in concert with our fellow-men — and thus elevate and cherish the noblest sentiments of our nature. Let us review its various applications.

"The first use of this language, which we think every Christian should deem a part of his *duty* — if it be indeed practicable — and not a mere matter of indifference, is to unite with our fellow-men in expressing our gratitude and love to our Heavenly Father. In doing this, we rouse and excite our own devotional feelings, and stir up each other to new life in the worship of God. For these purposes, God himself commanded the use of music in the Israelitish church. Indeed, he has written this law on the hearts of men. Scarcely a temple or a service has existed in the world, except among the Mahometans, in which music did not occupy an important place. In this view, the subject is of great importance. The defects in our church music are felt as well as admitted by all; and no thorough change can take place, but in acting on the rising generation.

"But it has other important uses, which are not so generally appreciated. There are periods of exhaustion, and there must be hours of relaxation and repose, in the life of all, from the prince to the peasant, when we need some innocent amusement to employ and interest without wearying, and to exclude improper occupations: and this necessity is greater, in proportion as the intellect is less cultivated. There are moments of physical debility or moral discouragement, when the mind is almost incapable of operating upon itself. At such seasons, music is of great utility. It is perhaps the only employment which leaves the intellect wholly in re-

pose, and on this account, is peculiarly important to literary men. In fact, it forms the relaxation of considerable numbers of those on the continent of Europe.*

"The popular, vocal music introduced of late years in Germany and Switzerland, is peculiarly adapted to these objects. Without being trifling, it is cheering and animated. Without being directly religious, or even didactic, it presents ordinary subjects under an aspect fitted to excite the nobler feelings, to elevate the thoughts above the world, and kindle the fire of devotion. It compnses songs on the various objects and phenomena of nature — the rising sun — the rolling thunder — the still evening — the rich harvest — and presents something applicable to every circumstance of life. It thus associates common occurrences and objects with the most elevated feelings, and every view of nature calls forth the notes of pleasure, and the song of praise to its Author. Such exercises are undoubtedly often mechanical at first, but their repetition cultivates the feelings they describe. It leaves an impress of softness, and produces a tendency upwards, which are useful to all, and it is of peculiar importance to those for whom it is generally deemed superfluous, — I mean, whose minds are chiefly occupied with providing for the immediate necessities of life, and who are conversant with its ruder elements.

"A passage of Vehrli's journal of his school at Hofwyl, presents a very interesting example of the influence of this species of music. 'The last autumn I was walking with my children by moonlight: "How beautiful the moon rises, and shines so red over the lake," said one of them. Another instantly began singing the hymn —

'In still and cheerful glory
She rises mild before us,'

and all joined in chorus. The last summer, at the approach of a storm, they often sung the hymn beginning —

'God thunders, but I nothing fear.'

They selected, as appropriate to the marked divisions of time, the hymn which begins —

'The days that Heaven allows us here,
How swiftly do they fly;'

and sung it frequently at the close of the week.'

"The visitor at Hofwyl may often hear them sing, in going out or returning from their labors, especially at the unseasonable hours sometimes necessary for securing their crops in this variable cli-

* A distinguished professor of the island of Sicily, on hearing the sad tale of the influence of study on our literary men, inquired what were their amusements. I was only able to answer—None. He expressed his astonishment, and added, "No wonder they die of study." He informed me that he spent a given portion of the day in practising instrumental and vocal music; and thought he could not live without the relief which they afforded to his mind.

mate; and thus cheering their toils and elevating their thoughts and feelings above the little inconveniences and hardships they endured. A number of commissioners who visited the establishment, observe, that they, like most other strangers, could not hear the music of these pupils without the deepest emotion. The greater part of them know by heart a hundred religious and popular hymns. Vehrli himself observes, that he has uniformly found, that in proportion as vocal music was improved, a kind and devotional spirit was promoted among his pupils.

"In furnishing an amusement of this kind, we shall divert from others of a doubtful or injurious character. In giving young men such a means of innocent excitement, by music appropriate to their age and feelings, we diminish the temptation of resorting to stimulating liquors, and other questionable modes of producing cheerfulness.

"But, aside from this benefit, music, of itself, has an effect which cannot be doubted, in softening and elevating the character. It diminishes the strength of the passions, by keeping them, for a time at least, in a state of inaction. It counteracts them, by producing the opposite and softer feelings.

"In addition to this, the study of music, from its very nature, cultivates the habits of order, and obedience, and union. All must follow a precise rule; all must act together, and in obedience to a leader; and the habit acquired in one part of our pursuits, necessarily affects others.

"On all these accounts, vocal music has no small influence on school discipline. We were struck with the superior order and kindly aspect of the German schools in comparison with our own; and ascribed it not a little to the cultivation of music in them. Those who unite in singing, with their fellows and their master, will be more disposed to be kind to the one, and obedient to the other."

An objection is sometimes brought against the study of vocal music, from the abuses to which it is liable. It is often said to absorb too much of the time of young persons, and to draw off their attention from other pursuits. This would be equally true of any other interesting pursuit; and above all, of every amusement. But are the young to be excluded from everything that is pleasing, in order to prevent their acquiring a distaste for laborious duties, or from becoming impatient under suffering? Is it not, on the contrary, the order of Providence, to "set the good over against the evil" — to prepare us to endure suffering, by the vigor of body, and elasticity of mind, which is produced by rational enjoyment? That this, like all other pursuits and enjoyments, should be duly regulated, cannot admit of a doubt. That it may be thus regulated, without sacrificing any of its important benefits, is fully proved in the schools of Germany.

But other abuses are feared. "The trifling and corrupting songs which form so large a part of the current music of the day, will be acquired, and thus more evil than good will be produced." But are corrupt songs more common than corrupt conversation, or corrupt books? Would not the same argument oblige us to withhold instruction in the English language? On the other hand, in proportion as it is more common to find corrupt or trifling songs invested with the charm of music, it is more important to present better sentiments, in the same attractive form — to fill the memory with poetry and music which shall elevate the taste, and render everything of an opposite character disgusting.

It is important here to recollect the wide distinction between music accompanied by language, and that which is merely instrumental. Instrumental music is addressed only to the senses, and through them to the feelings. In the hands of the skilful musician, who has observed human nature, it may be employed to excite or allay any class of feelings. But when selected by a young person, for the purpose of amusement, it will inevitably be such as to gratify and excite the feelings already predominant, whatever be their nature; and will be as likely to enervate and corrupt, as to improve the character. On the other hand, vocal music, when properly selected, is a means of impressing the best sentiments, of cultivating the best feelings, expressed in appropriate language, by the combined influence of numbers and melody.

We have taken it for granted in all our remarks, that the music performed by the young should be *selected*, with as much care as the books they read. For the reasons we have mentioned, we should deem it as irrational to leave to a child the selection of books or songs, as to allow him to choose the drug which was most pleasant to his taste, from the shop of the apothecary. Let not those parents or teachers who are thus negligent, be surprised, if the key of knowledge which they give, becomes a curse instead of a blessing.

But the most serious objection urged against the introduction of vocal music as a branch of education, is, that it is impracticable — that instruction in singing must be reserved for that small proportion of the community, who have what is termed "a natural ear," or "a natural voice" for music. We admit that great natural differences exist in the faculty for music, as in every other power of body and mind; but we do not know that even the phrenologist supposes that there are many individuals *entirely destitute* of the organ of tune. Music consists of a succession of sounds, divided into long and short, high and low, soft and loud. But who is there, that has hearing, that cannot distinguish the same variations in conversation — that cannot perceive the difference between the

rising tones of a question, and the falling tones of the answer? And how could correct reading be taught in our common schools, without attending to all these variations? Where do we find an individual who is unable to distinguish the *fortissimo* of the public crier, from the *pianissimo* of the whisper or the echo, — the *major key* in a command, from the *minor key* in the whine of a beggar, although he knows not the term for either? We are presented with examples of persons, who tell us they cannot distinguish one note from another. But it is too often forgotten, that sounds, like colors, cannot be described in words, but must be taught by examples, repeated until the distinctions become familiar. We confess ourselves quite as incompetent, to distinguish accurately the various shades of color which the manufacturer calls *slate*, *lead*, *grey*, *lilac*, *violet*, *lavender*, *purple*, *mulberry*, *puce* and *crimson*, as to discriminate the sharps and flats of the chromatic scale in music.

"But, in addition to this," as we have observed, "the examples taken are not fair ones. They are of persons whose ear and vocal organs have been formed to certain habits so long, that they cannot be supposed to be so susceptible or flexible as they once were. Read a portion of French or German to the same individuals, and see if they can distinguish the similar words and sounds at once. Call upon them to pronounce the nasal and guttural sounds of these languages; or require a foreigner to pronounce our own language; and it requires no second sight to determine that they would not succeed better than in music. Is this an evidence that they have not a natural ear or a natural voice for German, or French, or English? Surely not. Why, then, apply this reasoning to music? Indeed, the argument would be more applicable to language, so far as experience extends. Who ever heard of an individual who spent whole days, for several years together, in singing, who did not find an ear for it? But we have few examples of men who pronounce a foreign language without obvious errors, even after years of study, or of residence in a country where they speak it incessantly. Until we are presented with individuals who were taught music as they were taught language, from their childhood, and who still cannot distinguish or imitate musical sounds, there is no good reason for admitting that any considerable number of persons are naturally destitute of an ear for music."

Indeed, we have been assured, by more than one instructor of music, that he had found more difficulty in teaching his pupils to pronounce a vowel correctly, than to sound a note with accuracy.

But on this subject also, we have the decisive evidence of experience. Whole communities and nations of Europe have been taught to sing, with as little difficulty, and as much success, as they are taught to read. We found it the universal testimony of the most able and experienced teachers, that while the number is small in this, as in every other branch of knowledge and art, who become

eminent, there were very few — some said one in a hundred, and others one in a thousand — who could not be taught in youth, to sing with facility and correctness. Indeed, we found no other opinion, except among those whose delicacy of ear, or want of patience, prevented the necessary perseverance. The teacher of the poor children of Hofwyl,—chiefly taken from the highways and hedges,— assured me, that among several hundred pupils, he had found but two with whom he had any serious difficulty.

The result of fair experiments in our own country has been equally decisive, and we have been assured by teachers who have had several thousand pupils under their care, that they had never had one who could not be taught to sing. We have ourselves known several individuals, some of whom were of mature age, who could neither distinguish a tone nor sound a note at first, who were taught by a persevering instructor, and by the aid of a rational system of instruction, to sing with ease and correctness, in a much shorter period of time than would have been necessary, to acquire a correct pronunciation of the French language.

Indeed, much of the difficulty on this subject has arisen from the obscure and mysterious system of instruction formerly adopted. It required no common genius to penetrate the mist, which it threw around a science whose elements are as simple as arithmetic, or the elements of the mathematics.

In making it, therefore, a branch of universal education, it became necessary to devise new methods of instruction. The inductive plan, so successfully applied to other sciences by Pestalozzi and his associates, was also employed in music, and a system devised, which renders this subject far more simple and easy of comprehension, to an ordinary capacity, than the grammar of the English language.

In the views we have expressed, we are fully sustained by the authority of men whose experience and judgment on this point cannot be questioned. Luther, who had learned its value from experience, observes —

"It has a mighty control over every movement of the human heart. Wherefore, I recommend it to every man, particularly to youth, duly to love, honor and esteem this precious, useful and cheerful gift of God; the knowledge and diligent use of which will, at all times, drive off evil thoughts, and diminish the effect of evil society and vices. It is *necessary* — he adds — that this art be taught in schools. A schoolmaster must be able to sing, or else I will not look upon him."

In accordance with these views, a knowledge of vocal music is now deemed an almost indispensable qualification of a teacher, and a necessary part of common education, as we have already intimated, in the schools of Germany and Switzerland; and cheers the

opening and closing hours of the day. The best writers on education in those countries, who have conducted or witnessed these experiments, describe it as one of the most powerful means of improving the young. Niemeyer, one of the most celebrated authors on this subject, observes, "The organs of speech are improved by singing. The ear is formed and rendered more acute, and the power of music even upon savages, proves that we should least of all neglect a branch that exerts so important an influence, in softening the passions, in elevating the social and finer feelings, in aiding the moral cultivation, and cherishing the spirit of devotion. Denzel, another veteran in the cause of education, says; "The formation of the voice is too important, — the influence of vocal music upon the mind and heart too great, to permit us to dispense with it in common schools. It *is no longer doubted* that it ought to constitute a branch of study, in *every institution for elementary instruction.*"

But we have a testimony even more decisive, in the following ordinance addressed to teachers of common schools by one of the most enlightened governments in Europe, and the most distinguished for its attention to the cause of education. It is extracted from the official Gazette of the government of Prussia, Jan. 25th, 1828.

"Among the essential branches of education, which ought to be found in all common schools, and to which every teacher who undertakes the management of such schools, is in duty bound to attend, is instruction in singing. Its principal object in these schools, is to cultivate the feelings, and exert an influence in forming the habits, and strengthening the powers of the will, for which mere knowledge, of itself, is often altogether insufficient; hence it constitutes an essential part of *educating instruction*, and if constantly and correctly applied, renders the most unpolished nature capable of softer emotions, and subject to their influences. From its very nature, it accustoms pupils to conform to general rules, and to act in concert with others. It is far more sure of producing such an effect in youth, when the heart is very susceptible of impressions of this kind; and no importance should be attached to the assertion of many teachers and directors of schools, that we can by no means anticipate this influence, upon such rough youths as are found in the country. In general, this belief originates entirely from old prejudices, from a want of proper experience, from a love of indolence, or from an inadequate knowledge of the course and method of instruction. Convinced of the certainty of the result, where the means are correctly employed, we shall not stop to consider such objections as appear to be grounded solely upon exceptions. On the other hand, we shall hold those teachers in particular esteem, who labor, in this subject, with suitable zeal and success, in the conscientious discharge of the duties of their calling. We expect, also, that these efforts, together with their results, will be particularly noticed in the Report of the School Directors."

Such are the arguments, and such is the ample testimony in favor of *the introduction of vocal music as a branch of common education.* For ourselves, we consider it as fully established both from reason and experience, *that it is perfectly practicable, that it would promote materially the good order and discipline of our schools, and produce happy and lasting effects upon the character of the pupils;* and we earnestly recommend the subject to the attention of every parent, teacher, and friend of education.

Art. II. — School of Agriculture.

Report of the Committee appointed by the New York State Agricultural Society to draw a plan for Agricultural Schools.

While we have special institutions for each of the learned professions, and one for military science, it is certainly inconsistent and unwise to provide no particular instruction for one of the largest and most respectable classes, and one of the most important occupations of our country. It is with peculiar pleasure, therefore, that we find a plan proposed for a special School of Agriculture, in one of our most flourishing States.

A Convention of the friends of Agricultural Education was held at Albany on the 14th, 15th, and 16th days of February 1832, of which Le Ray De Chaumont was appointed President, Edward P. Livingston, Ambrose Spencer, Jacob Morris, and Robert S. Rose, Vice Presidents, and Philip S. Van Rensselaer and Jesse Buel of Albany, Secretaries. After the adoption of a constitution and the transaction of other necessary business, a committee of five persons was appointed "to draw a plan for Agricultural Schools, to embrace experimental and practical farming; together with an estimate of the expense necessary to establish and put the same in operation, and to report at the next annual meeting of the Society; with their views of the utility of such establishments."

In conformity with the purpose of this resolution, the committee made the following report at the annual meeting of the Society, at the Capitol in Albany, Feb. 14th, 1833. We are indebted for the article to the New York Farmer;

"The main objects of the proposed school are, to impart to agriculture the efficient aid of the sciences, and to furnish it with the best models of practice; to teach, simultaneously, in the period of youth devoted to academic studies, the practical operations of husbandry, and such branches of useful knowledge as may tend to ele-

vate its character, and increase its products. The *plan*, therefore, should embrace, —

"1. A Farm, of sufficient extent to afford room for the diversified operations of tillage, cattle and sheep husbandry, and of orcharding and gardening — on a scale that will admit a fair comparison to be made of crops, of breeds of cattle and sheep, and of the varieties of hardy fruits; — and sufficiently diversified in soil and surface to admit of satisfactory experiments:

"2. A Farm House and Farm Buildings, which may serve as models of convenience, taste and economy, and accommodate the head farmer and his assistants:

"3. A School Building, for the accommodation of teachers and scholars;

"4. A Library and Philosophical Apparatus:

"5. Stock and Implements for the farm: and,

"6. Shops for the construction of farm implements and machinery, for the use of the farm, for the illustration of mechanical science, and to afford practical instruction to the pupils in mechanics.

"These items of expense, which may be considered preliminary and permanent, together with the cost of the furniture required for the school building, are estimated at $7,500.

"The plan of Education might embrace, 1. Practical instructions in the various operations and labors of the farm, the garden, the orchards and the shops: and,

"2. The study of the natural sciences generally, mathematics, mechanics, chemistry and drawing, so far as these may conduce or become subservient to agricultural improvement, — together with such other branches of knowledge as will qualify the students for the higher duties of civil life, — such as will fit them to become independent electors, discreet jurors, faithful magistrates, and wise legislators.

"As pre-requisites to admission to the school, the pupils might be required to possess a good, common school education, to be at least fourteen years of age, and of good moral character. Four years might constitute a course of studies; and the internal regulations and police of the school might be conformed, in a measure, to those of our military academy.

"A department of the farm should be set apart for experiments in husbandry, and the details and results of these experiments accurately registered. The garden and the orchard should contain all the good, hardy fruits, and specimens of all hardy plants, that may be useful on the farm, in the arts, in commerce, or that are ornamental, — in order that the relative value of different species and varieties may be determined, and their mode of culture, and process of curing, taught to the pupils, — and the approved kinds furnished for public distribution.

"To put the School into operation there will be required, — a principal, professors and teachers, — a steward and servants, for the school;

"A manager, laborers, and assistants, for the farm;

"Machinists and assistants for the shops; and

"A practical and scientific manager for the garden and orchard.

"The number of officers and assistants which will be required, must depend upon contingencies: and of course the committee do not pretend to state with precision, in their estimate, the amount of their salaries and pay.

"The proceeds of the school and the farm may be expected to increase for some years, and will materially depend on the terms of tuition. The committee have assumed, as reasonable data, that the number of pupils would average 200, and the average produce of the farm amount to $4000 per annum, for the first four years. Upon the assumed data, then, the estimate would exhibit the following result.

PRELIMINARY EXPENSES.

Farm of 400 acres, at $30,		12,000
Farm buildings,		6,000
School buildings,		25,000
Library and apparatus,		7,500
Stock and implements,		3,150
Shops and tools,		1,250
Furniture for school,		1,150
Incidental,		1,500
Total preliminary expense,		$57,550

ANNUAL EXPENSE.

Salaries of officers and teachers of the school,	5,100	
Do. of manager and laborers on farm,	1,000	
Do. of machinists,	600	
Do. of gardener,	300	
Expense of boarding 200 pupils at $1,50 per week,	14,400	
Servants for the establishment,	2,000	
		23,400
Estimated annual expense,		$80,950

The Annual receipts are computed as follows:

Board and tuition of 200 pupils, at $150 per annum,	$30,000
Produce of farm,	4,000
	$34,000

"Thus the total expense of establishing the school, and of maintaining it the first year, is estimated at $80,950, and the income,

after the first year, it is believed, will be amply sufficient to defray all expenses. Yet to meet contingencies that may occur, and to make up for any deficiency in the estimate, the committee think that an appropriation of $100,000, the surplus to be invested for the benefit of the institution, will insure usefulness and permanency to the school, and prove amply sufficient to meet all its wants. This sum, if equalized among the population of the State, would operate as a tax of about *five cents* to each inhabitant.

The committee then go on to remark as follows:

"Your committee have thus complied with the requisition of the society, in submitting the plan of an Agricultural School, and an estimate of the expense necessary to establish and put the same into successful and permanent operation. It only remains for them to state their opinion of its utility.

"The agriculture of a country affords the best criterion of its prosperity. Whether we compare kingdoms, states, counties, districts, or farms, the condition of this branch of labor, which they severally exhibit, is a sure index, not only of the pecuniary, but of its moral condition. It is no less an axiom founded in truth, that agriculture prospers or languishes in proportion to the science and skill of the men who manage its labors. It is not the natural fertility of the soil, so much as the intelligence and industry of those who till it, which gives to husbandry its interests and its rewards. The man who devotes the energies of a highly cultivated mind, to the improvement of this primitive and all important branch of labor, is a public benefactor. Cincinnatus did more to immortalize his name, and to command our applause, by his love of rural labors, than by his military exploits. Washington, amid all the honors that irradiated his brow, sought his highest pleasures in the business and retirement of the farm. And it was the first remark of our present chief magistrate, to the writer, after introduction, that he would not forego the pleasures of the farm, for all the honors and emoluments that this nation could confer upon him. Education enables man to appreciate the wonderful provisions which God has made for his happiness in rural life, and imparts to him the ability of diffusing instruction and happiness to multitudes around him.

"It should be the policy of government, therefore, which watches over the interest of all, to infuse into the labors of husbandry all the lights of science and knowledge — to take care to expand and elevate the minds of those who are to give it efficiency and character, and to call forth skill and industry by proffered rewards. With us these considerations possess peculiar force. Our population and business are emphatically agricultural, and every aid which is extended to this class, benefits, indirectly, every portion of the community. Agriculture constitutes the fountains of the thousand rills, which swelling and traversing every part of the State, propel the spindle and the hammer of the artizan and the manufacturer, and finally, by their union, make up the mighty stream of commerce which unceasingly flows into the Atlantic.

"That our agriculture is susceptible of improvement—that the products of its labors may be doubled, nay quadrupled, must be apparent to those who have compared our husbandry with that of some European countries, or who have contrasted, at home, the well cultivated district, or farm, with those which are badly managed. How is the desired amelioration to be effected? How can a better husbandry be so well promoted, as by teach-

ing it to our youth—by sowing our seed in the spring-time of life? Prejudice no where retains a stronger hold, than among farmers who have approached or passed the meridian of life. While some retain old practices, for want of confidence in their knowledge to guide them in better ones, others lack the first requisites to improvement — a consciousness that their system is not the most useful; while not a few are influenced, in their hostility to public means of improvement, by the desire to keep things to their own level. If we would efficiently improve this great branch of business, and elevate its character, as well as the character of those who are engaged in its operations, we must do what universal experience has shown to be the only sure method: — we must lay our foundation in the rising generation — we must teach the young idea how to shoot — we must instruct the head to help the hands. Our physical and mental powers are twin sisters. They lighten each other's labor, and mutually impart a zest to each other's enjoyments. And as it is becoming common to introduce manual labor into literary schools, it is courteous that literature and science should requite civility, by associating with the inmates of schools of labor.

"Agricultural Schools, although of modern date, have nevertheless been established in most of the states of Europe, and their utility has been fully demonstrated. Who has not heard of the school of Fellenberg, at Hofwyl, or of Von Thayer, at Moegelin — to which young men are sent from every part of Europe, and even from America? In France and Prussia, Agricultural Schools have been founded and maintained by the governments. If they are found to be beneficial, and worthy of governmental support, in countries where power is vested in the few, how much more salutary must they prove here — where our institutions receive the impress of their character from the many, and where the perpetuity of these institutions depends emphatically upon the intelligence and virtue of the agricultural population. Despotism will never flourish in the American soil, but through the ignorance, and we may say consequent depravity, of its cultivators.

"Your committee recall to recollection, with feelings of pride, the munificent benefactions of the legislature, to advance the literary character of our state; and the fact, that comparatively nothing has been done, legislatively, to improve our agriculture, which employs five-sixths of our population, can only be ascribed to the fact, that nothing has been asked for — nothing thought of. Our public colleges and academies, for literary instruction, are numerous and respectable. They meet our eye in almost every village. But where are our public schools of labor? Where is the head taught to help the hands, in the business which creates wealth, and which is the grand source of individual and national prosperity and happiness? Our literary and professional schools have been reared up and sustained, by the expenditure of more than two millions of dollars from the public treasury, and they continue to share liberally in the public bounty. It will not, however, be denied, that the benefits which they dispense are altogether partial — that the rank and file of society, destined by heaven to become the conservators of civil liberty, are virtually denied a participation in the science and knowledge — in the means of improvement and of happiness, which they are calculated to dispense. Is it not a mandate of duty, then, as well as of expediency, that the benefits of public instruction should be more generally dispensed? We hazard not the fear of contradiction in assuming, that if a moiety of the public monies, which have been appropriated to literary schools, had been judiciously applied in

rendering science subservient to the arts, and in diffusing the higher branches among the laboring classes, the public benefits from the appropriation would have been far greater than they are at the present day. How many hundreds may now be pointed out, of liberal education, who are mere cyphers in society, for want of the early habits of application and labor, which it is the object of the proposed school to form and to infix! And how many, for want of these habits, have been prematurely lost to their friends, and to a purpose of usefulness for which man seems wisely to have been created — that of doing good to his fellows.

"From a full conviction, that the interests of the state not only warrant, but require, an appropriation of public monies to this object, your committee beg leave to recommend to the consideration of the Society the following resolution:

"*Resolved*, That a respectful memorial be presented to the Legislature, in behalf of this Society, and of the great interest which it represents, praying that suitable provision be made by law, for establishing a School of Agriculture, on the plan recommended in the preceding report; and that the coöperation, in this application, of societies and individuals, friendly to the object of the petition, be respectfully solicited."

We learn with pleasure that several county societies in the state strongly expressed in recent resolutions, a determination to petition the Legislature at their late session to make appropriations for an Agricultural Seminary. As another evidence of the interest which is taken in this subject in New York, provision was made by the executive committee of the Society to have lectures on the sciences, as connected with agriculture and practical husbandry, during the several days of their late session.

It is highly creditable to this great and flourishing member of our confederacy, to give the impulse in this important work, and we hope her example will be speedily and successfully followed by every state in the Union.

It is probable, however, that after the institution shall have been permanently established, it may be made nearly if not wholly a self-supporting institution. By this we mean, that the avails of the pupils' labor may be made to defray the expenses of their board and tuition; and this too, without retarding their studies; and we think that the experiments already made in this country will bear us out in the conjecture. If not, however, we should say let a suitable sum be paid for tuition; for it is in our view miserable economy to encourage any more labor than will advance rather than retard the progress of the pupil, and to encourage those kinds of labor which will interfere with health, or will not even promote it in the highest possible degree.

We are surprised, however, to find the products of the farm estimated at so low a rate, and board so much higher than has been found necessary in recent experiments. But the committee may have acted wisely in not raising public expectations too high; and we hope they will never sacrifice the main object of this noble

undertaking, — the improvement of their pupils, and their country, — for the mere purpose of saving money.

After the above report was received, a memorial was presented to the Legislature, praying for the establishment of a State Agricultural school. This memorial, together with the foregoing report was submitted to a select committee for consideration. The report of this committee, of which Mr Sudam was chairman, was highly favorable; and was accompanied by the form of a bill for carrying the plan into effect. The following are extracts from the report, which deserve the attention of every American legislator.

"It it then unfair to ask, what has been done by the Legislature for a class of its citizens so numerous, virtuous, and meritorious? The stranger, when he sojourns in our land, and views all that has been done for the cause of science, for education in the higher branches of literature, for our common schools, for the reformation and punishment of crimes on a scale superior to any state in Europe, naturally inquires — Show me your agricultural school. You are essentially an agricultural people; a class of society who have aided so liberally to the institutions of your State must have received the constant and peculiar care of legislative protection and patronage, by forming their minds, their habits, and their tempers, to become the patrons of the noble monuments already erected, and which, while they shed lustre on your State, have placed her first among her sisters in the Union.

"Shall we any longer be compelled to answer: — We have no such institution; we have provided an ample revenue for all but a complete course of *practical* instruction in agriculture. In almost every state in Europe, the attention of despotic government has been called — nay, seriously and sedulously directed — to the formation and endowment of schools of this description. There, it is admitted, the motive to a certain extent may be mercenary — to provide *food* for taxation. Here it is a *debt due from the State* to a class which, before they *asked for themselves*, have *contributed to all others*.

"It is not the intention of the committee to endow an institution to rear up and educate persons in the mere theory of husbandry. It is to combine practice with science; and if it should be said that this would be a school only for the children of the opulent, the unanswerable argument is, that it is the same in regard to our colleges, and must be so of necessity. Still the results of such an education, practised upon in all parts of the State, must and will lead to the most beneficial results. A good example is worth a world of mere speculation.

"In a school of this kind, under competent managers, there may be concentrated the best models of practice in rural labor, known at home or abroad. Education (practical education) is nowhere calculated to diffuse a more benign influence in society, than when bestowed on the farmer. He neither claims nor can exercise a monopoly.

"This school is intended to be purely agricultural. But in order to this, will be necessary to open a course of instruction, combined with labor, which your committee venture to say will be as interesting, and, to the state, as valuable, as that which may be acquired in any other seminary. The different qualities of soil, as fitted for the various products of the earth; the use of compost and manures, as applicable to soils; the seasons for planting, the rotation of crops, and the vast mass of practical information which enables man to transform a wilderness into a paradise, is worthy the pursuit of the *richest* as well as the humblest of the land.

"The question is, shall we endow a school to which many would desire to send their children for the purpose of preparing them to depend in future life on one of the most certain, and therefore the most happy of human pursuits; combining in itself all the elements of constant, regular, and sagacious employment; and freed from all the cares and corroding recollections, present or past, of the pursuits of a political life.

"Your committee propose to give them (farmers) a school to which resort may be had for the cultivation of the mind, and the improvement of the person; laying the foundation for future toils and pleasures, (for toils in agriculture are pleasures, when conducted to a successful result,) for future health and happiness, and preparing them to rear up a race fit to transmit to posterity the liberties we so highly cherish."

Art. III. — Principles and Methods of Intellectual Instruction exhibited in the Exercises of Young Children.

[Continued from Vol. II. p. 570.]

Education, rightly regarded, is not only an influence by which ideas are imparted, but an agency which calls them forth, in clear and palpable forms, from the sentient mind. It is a process of *ex*pression as well of *im*pression. Its office consists, not in shedding light upon an opaque substance, but on the transparent mirror of the soul, whose surface reflects the images cast upon it, in their true proportions. It should address equally the *intuitive* and *expressive* powers of the child.

The young mind is daily imbibing fresh material for thought. Susceptibility and instinct are supplying it with new ideas; and it endeavors to express these in *oral* and *symbolic forms*. It is this tendency of the mind that developes, at so early a period, the power of language; and renders the soul not only the receptacle of ideas, but imparts to it a moulding energy, by which these are impressed with the living forms of spirit.

To supply the mind with fresh forms from without, and to keep it pure and transparent, that it may receive and reflect these forms in their true symmetry and beauty, would seem, therefore, to constitute the office of instruction; — to fit the soul for accurate correspondence with itself and with outward objects, the end of education.

The following exercises, selected from the manuscripts of a little girl of nine years of age, are offered as specimens of original thought and expression — as exhibitions of what may be accomplished, at an early age, in aid of cultivating the intuitive powers, by supplying the mind with materials, drawn chiefly from its own experience. The extent of idea manifested in them, as attained by one so young is a proof that subjects and efforts, usually regarded as without the apprehension of the juvenile mind, are not necessarily unintelligible, when presented in appropriate forms, and when the mind is interested in

its own movements. The obvious pleasure which they afforded the writer, is a sufficient reason, even were there no other to warrant this belief, that instruction conducted in this form, during the earlier stages of the mind's expansion, is favorable to the growth and energy of the whole being — for where mental pursuits are prosecuted with conscious pleasure, progress is a necessary result.

As specimens of original exercises of children have been presented in preceding numbers of the Annals, the following exercises are regarded as additional illustrations of principles applied in detail.

14. The power of illustration, depends essentially upon an active and vivid *conception*. In the expression of *moral truth*, this power is particularly important. *Tales*, *fables*, and *allegories*, embody the fruits of conception in its most vivid forms; and are well adapted to call forth the intuitive operations of the young mind. A specimen of each follows.

FIDELITY.

"There was once a little girl, and she was very affectionate. She had a dog which she liked very much. His name was Trusty. After a while, however, his mistress grew tired of him, but he still loved her. As he was one day walking with her, they came to a town where a wild bull was kept. This bull had got loose, and threatened to do a great deal of mischief. He came running towards the little girl, but the dog kept him off, by his barking, till the little girl reached a house. He then followed his mistress, but was somewhat hurt. The little girl was sorry that he had thus suffered from his fidelity to her, and had him well taken care of. She ever afterwards treated him kindly.

SELF-IGNORANCE.

"A wolf, running one day, was pursued by some dogs. To get out of their way, he ran into a hedge; so the dogs did not find him. While here, a thorn ran into his eye and blinded him. Leaving his retreat he began to find fault with things, saying that they were not well-shaped, and that it was night when it should be day. But a fox, observing him and hearing him say this, said to him, "The fault is in your own eyes, and not in things, for you are blind." — Moral. When we are ignorant of our own imperfections, we cannot judge correctly of the perfections of others.

THE JOURNEY OF LIFE.

"Walking one evening by the sea-shore, I discovered, at a distance, a cave; and, being tired, I entered it to sit down and rest myself. The noise of the waters, falling around me, and the ocean before me, soon lulled me to sleep. And I thought I saw, in the middle of a great plain, two hills. On each was a temple. I observed that one hill was easier to ascend than the other, and that a great many people were ascending it. The other hill was less difficult of ascent, and had a great many people on it; even more than the first. When these people had reached the top of the hill, they appeared to be happy; but when they died, their minds instead of going upward, passed downward, till the observers could see them no longer. But those ascending the first hill looked very happy, even while they were toiling up its steeps, and if one died on the way, his mind was carried beyond the visible temple to one that was invisible. And I observed that their thoughts were fixed, not on the visible temple, buton one clearly

seen by the mind. When they reached the temple on the top of the hill they were happy; and happier when they died, and entered the one seen in the mind.

"While observing these things, I thought that a person approached me, and I asked him the names of the objects which I beheld. The plain which you see, said he, is the *Plain of Birth.* The difficult hill leads to the *Temple of Truth and Wisdom*, and the temple beyond this is *Perfection.* The other hill leads to *Earthly Happiness.* I further inquired why the people stopped at the bottom of the hills before they ascended? And he said it was to consider and choose which they should ascend. But here I was awakened by the coldness of the night air, and arose and went home."

15. The circumstances and events of life, as connected with the pursuits of the child, may, if recorded, shed much light upon his progress, and lead to correct self-inspection and self-estimation. The following is an extract from a diary designed to subserve purposes and lead to results of this nature.

JOURNAL — 1833.

"January 1. Tuesday. Read some of Miss Edgeworth's Comic Dramas, and was particularly interested in the Two Guardians. I think she may well call her dramas *comic*, for they are very laughable, and are, doubtless, true to nature. I have thought a good deal how I should spend the time this season, and have been laying my plans. I have made a selection for my *Mental Gems* from Mrs Barbauld, and I call it Faith in God. It is very beautiful.

"Jan. 2. Wednesday. Read some from Miss Edgeworth's Ormund. I was much interested in it. I have often tried to understand this story and have never succeeded before. I observed that I have often tried to understand stories and have not succeeded, but upon putting them away, and waiting a few weeks before I read them again, I could understand them, and am interested in them. I have fixed an hour for the study of Geography — I shall study it in the afternoon. I have learned one lesson to-day — Pennsylvania. My thoughts have been more fixed on my reading than anything else. I think I had better study arithmetic one day, and geography the next.

"Jan. 3. Thursday. Finished the reading of Ormund. Have done some sums in Colburn's arithmetic, and like to do them very much — they make me think. I read, for the first time understandingly, the birth of Jesus Christ, and was much interested in it.

Jan. 4. Friday. I have continued my geography. Paraphrased in my book. Received a letter from Mr A ——. It is the first letter I have received from him, since my return from the city. We had discontinued our correspondence for some time. It is very interesting and instructive to me. I have thought a good deal about his letter; and have been, also, trying to think what books I have ever read, so as to make a catalogue of them. I have thought of a good many already, and some of them are very good books. I have read some in Western Heath, but did not like it very much. I have read some from Miss Edgeworth's Frank, and was very much interested in it, as I am in all Miss Edgeworth's works that I understand. I have felt unusually happy to-day.

"Jan. 5. Saturday. Read Rosanna and Murad the Unlucky, and was much interested in them. Arranged my thoughts for answering Mr A.'s letter.

"Jan. 7. Monday. Had a geography lesson to learn, and as it was not very easy, I got out of patience. But I tried very hard, and at last succeeded. I shall not get out of patience again. I have read some in the New Testament, and understand what I read.

"Jan. 8. Tuesday. Read some in the New Testament. Answered Mr A——'s letter. Studied my lesson in geography.

"Jan. 9. Wednesday. Read some in the New Testament, and from Wordsworth's Poems.

"Jan. 10. Thursday. Read in the New Testament. Jesus Christ taught more by parables than in any other way, and I think it one of the best ways for teaching. Studied geography. Think it more useful than pleasant. Learned some arithmetic also.

"Jan. 11. Friday. I have read some from Miss Edgewórth's works, and from a selection of stories written by Pestalozzi — was much interested in them. Studied arithmetic in Colburn.

"Jan. 12. Saturday. I have read some from Swiss Family Robinson, and like it much. Read also in Miss Edgeworth's Harry and Lucy, and like it, because by trying experiments, they make things sure.

"Jan. 14. Monday. Selected a piece of poetry from Gray, calling it Impartiality of Providence. It is very beautiful and intended for Mental Gems. Read some in Frank.

"Jan. 15. Tuesday. Answered Mr A——'s letter. I continue to be much interested in our correspondence, and should be very sorry if Mr A. should think of discontinuing it. I inserted my selection in Mental Gems. Mr A. gave me some important advice on the advantages and importance of order.

"Jan. 16. Wednesday. Studied my geography. Selected a piece of poetry for Mental Gems, and called it Tuition of Experience. The poetry agrees with the name.

"Jan. 17. Thursday. Wrote some in my Lesson Book, and like to write in it very much.

"Jan. 18. Friday. Read some in Frank, and it seems as if I should never get tired of it. The oftener I read an interesting book, the more I like it. I can often find in Miss Edgeworth's writings, something agreeing with my own experience.

"Jan. 19. Saturday. Read most of the day in Practical Education, and was interested in all parts of it that I could understand. Read also in Practical Reading Lessons, —a most interesting book. It contains anecdotes illustrating the virtues."

16. The beneficial effects resulting from epistolary correspondence, are too obvious to require comment or elucidation. The following letters are selected from a correspondence of some length, between the little girl and her teacher.

CORRESPONDENCE.

LETTER VIII.

"Mr A——:

"The uses which you think there are in keeping a Diary, are, I think, very clear to any one. I could not have given so many reasons as you have done. But there was one reason which I thought of before you mentioned it, though I could not so well express it. I think that I should like to keep a Diary, and will if you think best.

"Your last letter was, I think, better than the others; but still I like the

blank verse in your second letter better than the rhyme in the last. I understand it better.

"When you said that "formal instruction may impress, but it is the experience of circumstances that alone educates," you said true, I think. Though we can very well understand and believe what is told us by others, we can be more certain if we have had experience about it. Still most of out knowledge is derived by faith in others, and not from real experience of it ourselves.

"But there is one thing which I forgot to tell you of—that is, one of my reasons for keeping a Diary, or Journal. You have often said that we get conscience by observing our experience. Writing a Diary is writing our experience, and after we have written it, and observed the causes of what happens to us, that teaches how to act again to make things operate well upon us.

"Do you not think that letter-writing teaches us to express our thoughts with ease and correctness? I think so. When we have done writing *our* letters, what shall we do with them — of what use will they be?

"Poetry I do not like at all, unless it have something to do with truth, which it generally has, I believe. The reason why I like the poetry in your last letter called 'The Three Books,' is because it is so very true. Will you make me a book for a Diary?

"Your scholar,

"October 16. E. W. L."

LETTER XXIV.

"Mr A——:

"In your last letter you made it appear very plainly that *choice is the noblest gift of man.* There is, it seems to me, a great deal of choice in conscience. I even think that the greatest part of conscience is choice. When we do not use choice well, it is not so much the fault of choice, as of our passions which influence it. If we act from necessity, and not from choice, I can see no merit in us, for all our merit comes from a good use of choice. Virtue springs from it — it is the beginning of virtue — having chosen well we can act upon our choice.

"I think that when we choose our masters well, we choose conscience, faith, and reason; and it is when our passions will not submit to the government of these masters, and our passions rise up against them, that we do wrong. You may well say that our safety depends upon our choice of masters; and I think that our happiness does too; for we cannot be happy with bad masters, and let our good parts be trampled on by our bad.

"Before I asked anybody whether I had done right or wrong, I should try to think for myself; and when they gave me their opinion, I should ask them their reasons, and consider upon them, before I made up my mind. Would not this be right?

"I value all your comparisons as much as your plain thoughts, and I liked those very much in your last letter.

"As I have been talking, or rather writing about conscience, faith, reason, and choice, I wish you would make me a map of the powers and faculties of our nature, that I may better understand them.

"Your scholar,

"November 28. E. W. L."

Art. IV. — School Discipline.

A practical lesson.

Extracted by permission from the unpublished "Description of the Mount Vernon School, in 1832, addressed to a new scholar. By Jacob Abbott, *Principal.*

We have often visited the Mount Vernon School, and always with increasing pleasure. We found the spirit of freedom, and yet of order and harmony, reigning there, not only in the hours of study, but in the unrestrained moments of recess, to a degree which we have rarely witnessed, and to which the "Description" does no more than justice. We have for some time been anxious to present our readers with an account of Mr Abbott's method of government, and have requested his permission to publish the chapter on *personal duty*, in the familiar style in which it was addressed to a pupil. We are persuaded that it will interest every teacher; and although the author very justly observes, that the plan of government must vary with the habits and circumstances of the individual, we believe it will furnish valuable hints to all who have the charge of children. We regret that Mr Abbott must leave his interesting charge, but we trust he will not withdraw his valuable labors from a cause which needs them so much.

Personal duty.

"Your first anxiety as you come into the school-room, and take your seat among the busy multitude, if you are conscientiously desirous of doing your duty, will be lest, ignorant as you are of the whole plan and of all the regulations of the institution, you should inadvertently do what will be considered wrong. I wish first, then, to put you at rest on this score. There is but one rule of this school. That you can easily keep.

"You will observe on one side of my desk a clock upon the wall, and upon the other a piece of apparatus that is probably new to you. It is a metallic plate, upon which are marked, in gilded letters, the words "*Study Hours.*" This is upright, but it is so attached by its lower edge to its support, by means of a hinge, that it can fall over from above, and thus be in a *horizontal* position; or it will rest in an *inclined* position, — *half down*, as it is called. It is drawn up and let down by a cord passing over a pully. When it passes either way, its upper part touches a bell, which gives all in the room notice of its motion.

"Now when this "*Study Card,*"* as the scholars call it, is *up*, so that the words "Study Hours" are presented to the view of the school, it is the signal for silence and study. There is then to

* It happens to be called "study card" because a sort of card made of pasteboard was the first form of the apparatus. A metallic plate was afterwards substituted.

BE NO COMMUNICATION AND NO LEAVING OF SEATS, EXCEPT AT THE DIRECTION OF TEACHERS. When it is *half down*, each scholar may leave her seat and whisper, but she must do nothing which will disturb others. When it is *down*, all the duties of school are suspended, and scholars are left entirely to their liberty.

"As this is the only rule of the school, it deserves a little more full explanation, for not only your progress in study, but your influence in promoting the welfare of the school, and consequently your peace of mind and happiness while you are a member of it, will depend upon the strictness with which you observe it.

"Whenever, then, the study card goes up, and you hear the sound of its little bell, immediately and instantaneously stop, whatever you are saying. If you are away from your seat, go directly to it, and there remain, and forget in your own silent and solitary studies, so far as you can, all that are around you. You will remember that all *communication* is forbidden. Whispering, making signs, writing upon paper or a slate, bowing to any one, — and in fact *every* possible way by which one person may have any sort of mental intercourse with another, is wrong. A large number of the scholars take a pride and pleasure in carrying this rule into as perfect an observance as possible. They say, that as this is the only rule with which I trouble them, they ought certainly to observe this faithfully. I myself, however, put it upon other ground. I am satisfied that it is better and pleasanter for you to observe it most rigidly, if it is attempted to be enforced at all.

"You will ask, "Cannot we obtain permission of you or of the teachers to leave our seats or to whisper, if it is necessary?" The answer is "No." You must never ask permission of me or of the teachers. You can leave your seats or speak at the *direction* of the teachers, i. e. when they of their own accord ask you to do it, but you are never to ask their permission. If you should, and if any teachers should give you permission, it would be of no avail. I have never given them authority to grant any permissions of the kind.

"You will then say, are we never, on any occasion whatever, to leave our seats in study hours? Yes, you are. There are two ways.

"1. *At the direction of teachers.* Going to and from recitations, is considered as at the *direction* of teachers. So if a person is requested by a teacher to transact any business, or is elected to a public office, or appointed upon a committee, — leaving seats or speaking, so far as is really necessary for the accomplishing such a purpose, is considered as at the direction of teachers, and is consequently right. In the same manner, if a teacher should ask you individually, or give general notice to the members of a class to come to her seat for private instruction, or to go to any part of the school room for her, it would be right to do it. The distinction, you observe, is this. The teacher may, *of her own accord*, direct any leaving of seats which she may think necessary to accomplish the objects of the school. She must not, however, *at the request of an individual*, for the sake of her mere private convenience, give her permission to speak or to leave

her seat. If, for example, a teacher should say to you in your class, 'As soon as you have performed a certain work you may bring it to me,' you would in bringing it, be acting under her *direction*, and would consequently do right. If, however, you should want a pencil, and should ask her to give you leave to borrow it, even if she should give you leave, you would do wrong to go, for you would not be acting at her *direction*, but simply by her *consent*, and she has no authority to grant consent.

"2. The second case in which you may leave your seat, is when some very uncommon occurrence takes place, which is sufficient reason for suspending all rules. If your neighbor is faint, you may speak to her, and if necessary lead her out. If your mother or some other friend should come into the school room, you can go and sit with her upon the sofa, and talk about the school. And so in many other similar cases. Be very careful not to abuse this privilege, and make slight causes the grounds of your exceptions. It ought to be a very clear case. If a young lady is unwell in a trifling degree, so as to need no assistance, you would evidently do wrong to talk to her. The rule in fact is very similar to that which all well bred people observe at church. They never speak or leave their seats unless some really important cause, such as sickness, requires them to break over all rules and go out. You have in the same manner, in really important cases, such as serious sickness in your own case or in that of your companions, or the coming in of a stranger — or something else equally extraordinary, power to lay aside any rule and to act as the emergency may require. In using this discretion however, be sure to be on the safe side; in such cases never ask permission. You must act on your own responsibility.

"*Reasons for this rule.* When the school was first established there was no absolute prohibition of whispering. Each scholar was allowed to whisper in relation to her studies. They were often, very often, enjoined to be conscientious and faithful, but as might have been anticipated the experiment failed. It was almost universally the practice to whisper more or less about subjects entirely foreign to the business of the school. This they all repeatedly acknowledged; and the scholars almost unanimously admitted, that the good of the school required the prohibition of all communication during certain hours. I gave them their choice, either always to ask permission when they wished to speak, — or to have a certain time allowed for the purpose, during which free inter-communication might be allowed to all the school; — with the understanding, however, that out of this time, no permission should ever be asked or granted. They very wisely chose the latter plan, and the study card was constructed and put up to mark the times of free communication, and of silent study. The card was at first down every half hour for one or two minutes. The scholars afterwards thinking that their intellectual habits would be improved and the welfare of the school promoted, by their having a longer time for uninterrupted study, of their own accord, without any influence from me, proposed that the card should be down only once

an hour. This plan was adopted by them, by vote. I wish it to be understood that it was not *my* plan, but *theirs*, and that I am at any time willing to have the study card down once in half an hour, whenever a majority of the scholars, voting by ballot, desire it.

You will find that this system of having a distinct time for whispering, when all may whisper freely, all communication being entirely excluded at other times, will at first give you some trouble. It will be hard for you, if you are not accustomed to it, to learn conscientiously and faithfully to comply. Besides, at first you will often need some little information, or an article, which you might obtain in a moment, but which you cannot innocently ask for till the card is down, and this might keep you waiting an hour. You will, however, after a few such instances, soon learn to make your preparations before hand, and if you are a girl of enlarged views and elevated feelings, you will goodhumoredly acquiesce in suffering a little inconvenience yourself, for the sake of helping to preserve those *distinct* and well *defined* lines, by which all boundaries must be marked, in a large establishment, if order and system are to be preserved at all.

"Though at first you may experience a little inconvenience, you will soon take pleasure in the scientific strictness of the plan. It will gratify you to observe the profound stillness of the room where a hundred are studying. You will take pleasure in observing the sudden transition from the silence of study hours to the joyful sounds, and the animating activity of recess, when the study card goes down; and then when it rises again at the close of the recess, you will be gratified to observe how suddenly the sounds which have filled the air and made the room so lively a scene, are hushed into silence by the single and almost inaudible touch of that little bell. You will take pleasure in this, for young and old always take pleasure in the strict and rigid operation of *system*, rather than in laxity and disorder. I am convinced also that the scholars do like the operation of this plan, for I do not have to make any efforts to sustain it. With the exception that occasionally, usually not oftener than once in several months, I allude to the subject, and that chiefly on account of a few careless and unfaithful individuals, I have little to say or to do to maintain the authority of the study card. Most of the scholars obey it of their own accord, implicitly and cordially. And I believe they consider this faithful monitor, not only one of the most useful, but one of the most agreeable friends they have. We should not only regret its services, but miss its company, if it should be taken away.

"This regulation then, viz., to abstain from all communication with one another, and from all leaving of seats, at certain times which are marked by the position of the study card, is the only one which can properly be called a *rule* of the school. There are a great many arrangements and plans relating to the *instruction* of the pupils, but no other specific *rules* relating to *their conduct*. You are, of course, while in the school, under the same moral obligations which rest upon you elsewhere. You must be kind to one another, — respectful to superiors, — and quiet and orderly in your deportment. You must

do nothing to encroach upon another's rights, — or to interrupt and disturb your companions in their pursuits. You must not produce disorder, or be wasteful of the public property, or do anything else which you might know is in itself wrong. But you are to avoid these things, not because there are any rules in this school against them, for there are none; — but because they are *in themselves wrong*; — in all places and under all circumstances, wrong. The universal and unchangeable principles of duty are the same here as elsewhere. I do not make rules pointing them out, but expect that you will, through your own conscience and moral principle, discover and obey them.

"Such a case as this for example once occurred. A number of little girls began to amuse themselves in recess with running about among the desks, in pursuit of one another, and they told me, in excuse for it, that they did not know that it was '*against the rule.*'

"'It is not against the rule;' said I, 'I have never made any rule against running about among the desks.'

'Then' asked they, 'did we do wrong?'

'Do you think it would be a good plan,' I inquired, 'to have it a common amusement in the recess for the girls to hunt each other among the desks?'

'No sir,' they replied simultaneously.

'Why not? There are some reasons. I do not know, however, whether you will have the ingenuity to think of them.'

'We may start the desks from their places,' said one.

'Yes,' said I, 'they are fastened down very slightly so that I may easily alter their position.'

'We might upset the inkstands,' said another.

'Sometimes' added a third, 'we run against the scholars who are sitting in their seats.'

'It seems then you have ingenuity enough to discover the reasons. Why did not these reasons prevent your doing it?'

'We did not think of them before.'

'True; that is the exact state of the case. Now when persons are so eager to promote their own enjoyment, as to forget the rights and the comforts of others, it is *selfishness*. Now is there any rule in this school against selfishness?'

'No sir.'

'You are right. There is not. But selfishness is wrong, — very wrong, in whatever form it appears — here, and everywhere else; and that whether I make any rules against it or not.'"

"You will see from this anecdote that though there is but one rule of the school, I by no means intend to say that there is only *one way of doing wrong here.* That would be very absurd. You *must not do anything which you may know by proper reflection to be in itself wrong.* This however is a universal principle of duty, not a *rule* of the Mount Vernon School. If I should attempt to make rules which would specify and prohibit every possible way by which you might do wrong, my laws would be innumerable. And even then I should fail of securing my object, unless you had the disposition to do your duty. No legislation can enact laws as fast as a perverted ingenuity can find means to evade them.

You will perhaps ask what will be the consequence if we transgress, — either the single rule of the school, or any of the great principles of duty. In other words what are the punishments which are resorted to in the Mount Vernon School? The answer is there are

no punishments. I do not say that I should not, in case all other means should fail, resort to the most decisive measures to secure obedience and subordination. Most certainly, I should do so, as it would plainly be my duty to do it. If you should at any time be so unhappy as to violate your obligations to yourself, to your companions or to me, — should you misimprove your time, or exhibit an unkind or a selfish spirit, or be disrespectful or insubordinate to your teachers, — I should go frankly and openly, but kindly to you, and endeavor to convince you of your fault, I should very probably do this by addressing a note to you, as I suppose this would be less unpleasant to you than a conversation. In such a case, I shall hope that you will as frankly and openly reply; telling me whether you admit your fault and are determined to amend, or else informing me of the contrary. I shall wish you to be *sincere*, as then I shall know what course to take next. But as to the consequences which may result to you if you should persist in what is wrong, it is not necessary that you should know them before hand. They who wander from duty always plunge themselves into troubles they do not anticipate; and if you do what at the time you are doing it, you know wrong, it will not be unjust that you should suffer the consequences, even if they were not before hand understood and expected. This will be the case with you all through life, and it will be the case here.

"I say it *will* be the case here; I ought rather to say that it *would be* the case should you be so unhappy as to do wrong and to persist in it. Such cases however never occur. At least they occur so seldom, and at intervals so great, that every thing of the nature of punishment, that is, the depriving a pupil of any enjoyment, or subjecting her to any disgrace, or giving her pain in any way in consequence of her faults, except the simple pain of awakening conscience in her bosom is almost entirely unknown. I hope that you will always be ready to confess and forsake your faults, and endeavor while you remain in school to improve in character and attain as far as possible every moral excellence.

"I ought to remark before dismissing this topic, that I place very great confidence in the scholars in regard to their moral conduct and deportment, and they fully deserve it. I have no care and no trouble in what is commonly called *the government of the school.* Neither myself nor any one else is employed in any way in watching the scholars, or keeping any sort of account of them. I should not at any time hesitate to call all the teachers into an adjoining room, leaving the school alone for half an hour, and I should be confident, that at such a time order and stillness and attention to study would prevail as much as ever. The scholars would not look to see whether I was in my desk, but whether the study card was up. The school was left in this way, half an hour every day during a quarter, that we might have a teacher's meeting, and the school went on, generally quite as well, to say the least, as when the teachers were present. One or two instances of irregular conduct occurred. I do not now

recollect precisely what they were. They were, however, fully acknowledged and not repeated, and I believe the scholars were generally more scrupulous and faithful then than at other times. They would not betray the confidence reposed in them. This plan was continued until it was found more convenient to have the teacher's meeting in the afternoons.

"When any thing wrong is done in school, I generally state the case and request the individuals who have done it to let me know. They do it sometimes by notes and sometimes in conversation, — but they always do it. The plan *always* succeeds. The scholars all know that there is nothing to be feared from confessing faults to me; — but that on the other hand it is a most direct and certain way to secure returning peace and happiness.

"I can illustrate this by describing a case which actually occurred. Though the description is not to be considered so much an accurate account of what occurred in a particular case, as an illustration of the *general spirit and manner* in which such cases are disposed of. I accidentally understood, that some of the younger scholars were in the habit during recesses and after school of ringing the door bell and then running away, to amuse themselves with the perplexity of their companions, who should go to the door and find no one there. I explained in a few words, one day, to the school, that this was wrong.

'How many,' I then asked, 'have ever been put to the trouble to go to the door, when the bell has thus been rung? They may rise.'

A very large number of the scholars stood up. Those who had done the mischief were evidently surprised at the extent of the trouble they had occasioned.

'Now,' I continued, 'I think all will be convinced that the trouble which this practice has occasioned to the fifty or sixty young ladies, who cannot be expected to find amusement in such a way, is far greater than the pleasure it can have given to the few who are young enough to have enjoyed it. Therefore it was wrong. Do you think the girls who rang the bell might have known this by proper reflection?'

'Yes sir,' the school generally answered.

'I do not mean,' said I, 'if they had set themselves formally at work to think about the subject; but with such a degree of reflection as ought reasonably to be expected of little girls, in the hilarity of recess and of play.'

'Yes sir,' was still the reply, but fainter than before.

'There is one way by which I might ascertain whether you were old enough to know that this was wrong, and that is by asking those who have refrained from doing this, because they supposed it would be wrong, to rise. Then if some of the youngest scholars in school should stand up, as I have no doubt they would, it would prove that all might have known if they had been equally conscientious. But if I ask those to rise who have *not* rung the bell, I shall make it known to the whole school, who they are that have done it, and I wish that the exposure of faults should be private, unless it is *necessary* that it should be public. I will therefore not do it. I have myself however, no doubt that all might have known that it was wrong.'

'There is,' continued I, 'another injury which must grow out of such a practice. This I should not have expected the little girls could think of. In fact I doubt whether any in school will think of it? Can any one tell what it is?'

No one replied.

'I should suppose that it would lead you to disregard the bell when it rings and that consequently a gentleman or lady might sometimes ring in vain; the scholars near the door, saying, "Oh it is only the little girls."'

'Yes sir,' was heard from all parts of the room.

'I found from farther inquiry that this had been the case, and I closed by saying,

"'I am satisfied, that those who have inadvertently fallen into this practice are sorry for it, and that if I should leave it here, no more cases of it would occur, and this is all I wish. At the same time, they who have done this, will feel more effectually relieved from the pain which having done wrong must necessarily give them, if they individually acknowledge it to me. I wish therefore that all who have done this would write me notes stating the facts. If any one does not do it, she will punish herself severely, for she will feel for many days to come, that while her companions were willing to acknowledge their faults, she wished to conceal and cover hers. Conscience will reproach her bitterly for her insincerity and whenever she hears the sound of the door bell it will remind her not only of her fault, but of what is far worse, *her willingness to appear innocent when she was really guilty*.'"

"Before the close of school I had eight or ten notes acknowledging the fault, describing the circumstances of each case, and expressing promises to do so no more.

"It is by such methods as this, rather than by threatening and punishment that I manage the cases of discipline, which from time to time occur, but even such as this, slight as it is, occur very seldom. Weeks and weeks sometimes elapse without one. When they do occur they are always easily settled by confession and reform. Sometimes I am asked to *forgive* the offence. But I never forgive. I have no power to forgive. God must forgive you when you do wrong, or the burden must remain. My duty it is to take measures to prevent future transgression, and to lead those who have been guilty of it, to God for pardon. If they do not go to him, though they may satisfy me, as principal of a school, by not repeating the offence, — they must remain *unforgiven*. I can *forget* and I do forget. For example, in this last case, I have not the slightest recollection of any individual who was engaged in it. The evil was entirely removed, and had it not afforded me a convenient illustration here, perhaps I should never have thought of it again, — still it may not yet be *forgiven*. It may seem strange that I should speak so seriously of God's forgiveness for such a trifle as that. Does he notice a child's ringing a door-bell in play? He notices when a child is willing to yield to temptation, — to do what she knows to be wrong, — and to act, even in the slightest trifle, — from a selfish disregard for the convenience of others. This spirit he always notices, — and though I may stop any particular form of its exhibition, it is for Him alone to forgive it and to purify the heart from its power. But I shall speak more particularly on this subject under the head of Religious Instruction."

INTELLIGENCE.

Education in Tennessee.

A system of common schools, not unlike that of Connecticut, has been established in Tennessee, and some attempts have been made by the Legislature to appropriate sufficient funds to carry the system into operation. Within two years a small sum has been appropriated and applied to the education of children and youth between the ages of six and eighteen. This sum is given to a certain committee, whose duty it is to procure and pay the teacher. Very lately the Legislature have reduced the licenses on dram shops from $15 or $20 to $5, the avails of which are to be applied to common schools. That the school may be prolonged to meet the feelings of the neighborhood, a cheap instructor is employed, say for ten, twelve, or fifteen dollars a month; the instructor furnishing his own board. Female teachers are seldom employed at all. The teachers are generally those, whose learning was drawn from such schools as they purpose to have, termed "Old Field Schools." The following graphic description of the common schools and school-houses in Tennessee, is from a source on which we place entire reliance, and to which we are principally indebted for the facts of the whole article. We refer to a series of letters from Tennessee, published in the "Connecticut Observer."

"Let the following serve as a fair, impartial picture of school-houses and schools. A house is built of round logs, one story high, fifteen feet long, twelve feet wide, and covered with split slabs. The chimney is made of wood and mud, and placed at one end of the house. The benches are usually without backs, and there are no desks, wherein to put books or writing implements. A space between the logs extends round the house, about eight inches wide, through which light and air may unremittingly enter, and the door is invariably left open winter and summer. The floor is composed of the same material with the roof, or earth. The scholars sit promiscuously about the room, with little reference to system; and study as loud as they read, and leave their seats at pleasure.

"Parents rarely send their children under six years old, but as it was in New England fifteen years since, they send those of twenty years. The government is absolute, and when a scholar has offended, the rod is not spared. No school is held on Saturday. A whole class frequently read and spell without correction. Words are often spelt, and only the first syllable pronounced. While a class is reading, the teacher mends pens, answers questions in the different branches of study, and disciplines if necessary. Formality and monotony in reading are very prevalent. The article *a*, precedes or follows nearly every other word.

"An illustration will best convey our meaning, and the truth. The sentence; 'Every syllable, and even every letter, should be pronounced distinctly, particularly vowels,' is emphatically read; 'Every a-syllable, and-a even a-every a-letter a-should be a-pronounced a-distinctly, particularly a-vowels.' The truth is, this and other similar habits were imbibed early, and the unconscious youth is suffered to continue them unmolested. The arithmetic book is held in the same hand with the slate, and watched closely; and if both answers nearly agree, the sum is left, and another commenced to be worked in the same manner. In short, scholars are informed that the sum is right, without a reason why. In this way a whole book is finished. Nor have we often seen a class formed in this branch

While one is engaged in Reduction, another is in Multiplication; and another still has just begun in Addition; and all perhaps are striving for the end of the book. But we have never seen, in the common schools of New England as good writing, as is generally found here. We account for it in this way: in our common schools, grammar and geography are seldom taught."

The subject of education, of late, has attracted considerable attention from the politicians of this State, and we hope they will ere long be found the strenuous advocates of improvement. But the want of qualified teachers will long be felt as a serious obstacle. Not only are those who engage in the business of teaching, in too many instances, deplorably ignorant of the very rudiments of an English education, but they are likewise, in still greater numbers, deficient in the patience, assiduity, system, benevolence, and impartiality which are so requisite in those who have the instruction and education of youth committed to them. It is also painful, as we are informed, to revert to the immorality of some of the teachers. Intemperance is by no means uncommon, though it is rarely indulged in school. Yet the Christmas holidays are still occasionally celebrated by the ancient custom of "barring out the master," which is generally a drunken revel, in which the teacher and his scholars unite.

Female education has attracted a commendable degree of attention in Tennessee. There are several flourishing female seminaries in Nashville, in which are taught not only the ornamental, but likewise the solid and useful branches of education. The same may be said of the Female Academy at Knoxville, and several other institutions of the kind in other parts of the State.

There are two Manual Labor institutions in this State. One is at Maryville under the care of Dr Anderson. It contains, say forty pupils, who are taken from the field and prepared for the ministry. They receive their education at very little expense besides the avails of their labors. The services of the President, Dr A. have hitherto been gratuitous, though he is in low circumstances. He supports himself partly by preaching and partly by a farm. The labors and sacrifices of this gentleman in the cause of doing good are said to be immense; and compared with his means, have rarely, if ever been exceeded. The other manual labor school is in Maury county, under the care of Dr Hardin; and is but recently established.

There are four or five Colleges in the State, but they are not generally flourishing, although several of them have very able professors. The University of Nashville, under President Lindsley, is the most flourishing, and is managed with uncommon ability. But that foolish prejudice, so often the concomitant of ignorance, prevails in Tennessee; — we mean the idea that colleges exclusively favor the sons of the rich, and that they are opposed to the interests of the common people.

Education in Illinois.

By a late law in the State of Illinois, published in the Illinois Patriot, the interest derived from the sales of the "school lands" in each township, (except what is wanted to defray the expenses of surveying and selling them,) in that State, is to be divided annually by the School Commissioner of each county, among the teachers of such towns, according to the number of their scholars, residing in the township possessed of such school fund, and the number of days they have attended during the preceding 12 months, on the following conditions;

"(Sect. 4.) The teacher shall make a schedule of the names of all scholars attending his school, who reside within the township to which the school fund belongs, from the interest of which he wishes to obtain a part of his compensation; and on every day on which a school shall be kept by him, he shall sit down under the proper date, and opposite to the name of each scholar, the attendance or absence of such scholar. Immediately after the close of the month of October, or sooner, if his school shall have come to a close, said teacher shall add together the number of days which each scholar, residing in the proper township, shall have attended his school, and set down the total number of days, opposite the name of such scholar; he shall then add together their several amounts, and set down the total number at the bottom of the schedule; and this total number, after the schedule shall have been examined, and if necessary, corrected by the school commissioner, shall be the criterion by which he shall be governed in making the apportionment aforesaid; but no such schedule shall be taken into consideration, unless it shall be accompanied by a certificate from a majority of the trustees of the school, or from five of the employers of said teacher, setting forth that they verily believe said schedule to be correct; and that said teacher has, to the best of their knowledge and belief, given gratuitous instruction in said school to all such orphans and children of indigent parents, residing in the vicinity, as had been presented for that purpose, by the trustees of said school."

The whole statute from which these facts are derived is interesting, and along with the formation of the Illinois Institute, will we trust effect much good for the rising generation of that infant but enterprising State.

State of Education in Alabama.

A correspondent of the American Traveller states that the cause of education is rapidly advancing in Northern Alabama, and believes that if they "could only have a sufficient number of teachers with suitable literary qualifications and a good share of common sense, the whole West would soon be supplied with flourishing schools."

The inhabitants of Huntsville, in particular, are represented as taking a prominent stand in favor of education. They have established a very respectable Academy for boys, and a Female Seminary of the highest order. It is under the care of three teachers who were educated by Miss Beecher, at her seminary in Hartford. They have been connected with the institution more than two years; and usually have from 80 to 100 young ladies under their instruction. They receive each a salary of $500 a year, and their board.

Premium Offered.

The trustees of the Girard College, (Phila.) offer a premium of four hundred dollars for the best plan of instruction which shall accord with the obvious intentions of the benevolent founder, to be sent to them on or before the first day of January, 1834.

Lectures before the American Institute of Instruction.

The lectures before the Institute in 1832 are now in press. By an arrangement with the Censors and publishers, we presented our readers with as many of them as our pages would receive, previous to the time appointed for publication, and have endeavored to select those which related most to methods of instruction. The whole series will soon be published in a separate volume, by Carter, Hendee & Co.

Massachusetts Lyceum.

The annual meeting of the Massachusetts Lyceum was held in the Representatives' Chamber on the evening of the 20th ult. Hon. A. H. Everett, President in the chair. The report was read by Mr Josiah Holbrook, Recording Secretary. W. C. Woodbridge, Corresponding Secretary, made a report respecting the American Lyceum and its last annual meeting; and statements were made by several gentlemen from different parts of the State, after which a committee of one from each county was appointed to report on the state of Lyceums in this Commonwealth, at an adjourned meeting.

On motion of the Rev. Mr Pierpont,

"*Voted*, That the generous donation from the Bowdoin Hall School Lyceum of a set of geological specimens, with a tract to explain them, to every school in this Commonwealth, is entitled to the approbation and the thanks of this institution.

The Lyceum then adjourned to March 27.

At the adjourned meeting after the Report of the Committee, the following resolutions were submitted and unanimously adopted:

On motion of Mr Holbrook of Boston,

"*Resolved*, That we have heard with pleasure the interesting report from the American Lyceum, by the Secretary, and approve of the objects and measures of that institution."

On motion of Rev. W. C. Woodbridge of Boston,

"*Resolved*, That the Massachusetts Lyceum recommend to all the town and county Lyceums, also schools in this Commonwealth, to co-operate with the National Society in the objects and measures proposed by it, especially the collection of Cabinets of Natural History, and in a system of exchanges with literary institutions and individuals in all sections of the country."

On motion of Mr Greene of New Bedford,

"*Resolved*, That the introduction of Natural History into *common schools*, will be calculated to increase their usefulness and elevate their character."

On motion of Mr Hastings of Worcester,

"*Resolved*, That the Collection of Cabinets of Natural History in all our towns and villages throughout the country, and of a central deposit at New York, would be calculated to open new sources of industry and of wealth to our nation."

On motion of Rev. Mr Gannett of Boston,

"*Resolved*, That Cabinets of Natural History, deposited in towns and villages throughout the country, would furnish less expensive and more valuable amusements to young people than those which often occupy their attention."

After the close of the public exercises, the Lyceum proceeded to choose officers for the ensuing year, and delegates to attend the annual meeting of the American Lyceum, to be held in the city of New York on the first of May.

The officers elected are, Hon. A. H. Everett, President — Rev. W. C. Woodbridge, Corresponding Secretary — Mr Josiah Holbrook, Recording do. — Mr T. H. Carter, Treasurer — Messrs William Jackson, T. A. Green, S. C. Philips, W. S. Hastings, Abraham R. Thompson, S. J. Gardner, Joseph Brown and Joseph Jenkins, Curators. — The Presidents of county Lyceums are, as such, Vice Presidents of this institution.

The following gentlemen were appointed delegates;—The President and Secretaries, Hon. Edward Everett, Mr Frederick Emerson, and Mr Chester Dewey.

Convention of Teachers at Andover.

A Convention of Teachers and other friends of Education assembled at the Teachers' Seminary in Andover, Mass. on the 10th of April last, and continued in session nine days. The time was principally employed in lectures, and in discussions, and in occasional visits to the Teachers' Seminary. Three lectures were usually given in a day, and two meetings held for discussion. We have been favored with the records of the Secretary, from which we make the following abstract of the proceedings. We regret that we have no more room for details; but we understand that a full report is to be published.

Of the lectures, eight were given by Mr S. R. Hall, Principal of the Teachers' Seminary, and Chairman of the Convention, on the following subjects; Responsibility of Teachers, Qualifications of Teachers, Objects for which a Teacher should labor, Best method of commencing a School, School Discipline, Arithmetic, Natural Philosophy, and Electricity. The two last were illustrated by experiments.

Mr Adams, late Principal of the Latin School in Andover gave three lectures, On the Art of Teaching. Mr Josiah Holbrook, three; two of which were on the Use of School Apparatus, and one on the Wants of the West. Mr Tenney, of the Teachers' Seminary, two on teaching Arithmetic. Mr Loomis, Secretary of the Convention, two; on the Absurdities of the English Alphabet, and on the General Management of Schools. Mr Hibbert, two on Geology. Mr Barton of the Teachers' Seminary, also gave one lecture on Circuit Schools, and the best manner of conducting them; Mr Taylor, of the Theological Seminary, one on Natural History; Mr Foster, one on the condition and prospects of Schools in the Southern States; Mr De Witt, on Improving the Memory; Mr Richmond, on the present condition of Greece in regard to Education; and Mr Smith, on the Carstairian system of Penmanship.

Many important topics were presented and discussed, among which were the following; Defects of Common Schools and the best means of remedying them. Importance of having teachers well instructed in their professional duties. Importance of making the business of teaching a profession. Usefulness and facility of establishing *Circuit Schools*. Mutual co-operation of schools, even in distant States, and facilities for producing it. Importance of cultivating early habits of systematic benevolence among the children of common schools. Utility of town and county conventions of Teachers. Importance of the American School Agents' Society, and its claims upon the community. Great and alarming evils resulting from the present neglect of moral instruction in many of our common schools. Methods of securing the influence of females in promoting the cause of education. Mode of teaching the alphabet, and spelling and reading. Character and comparative merits of school books. Introduction of new branches into schools, among which *moral philosophy* was particularly recommended. Impropriety of attempting to teach too many things *at one time*. Unpardonable neglect of ventilation in school-rooms. Best methods of communicating moral instruction in schools. On the last, subject several resolutions were passed, which we have no room to insert.

Among other resolutions which were adopted, was one, recommending it to the School Agents' Society forthwith to employ six or eight agents

to go through New England and New York in the months of May and June next, and call conventions of Teachers and other friends of education in every county.

The Convention also set on foot a plan for supporting, during the term of six months, an agent in Greece; whose duty it shall be to devote his time in endeavoring to awaken parents to the importance of giving their children the means of intellectual and moral instruction. It is said that there is an intelligent and spirited Greek now in that country, who might be employed for this purpose for $100. Several of the teachers at the Convention, in behalf of themselves and their pupils, promised to contribute from $5 to $10 each for the purpose: proposing to have a weekly collection among their pupils.

As it was thought expedient to send a delegate to represent the Convention at the annual meeting of the National Lyceum in New York, on the 3d of the present month, Mr Loomis, the Secretary of the Convention was appointed.

Manual Labor Schools.

North Carolina.—Manual Labor Schools are beginning to receive attention in this state. A series of interesting articles on this subject have lately appeared in the "People's Press," of Wilmington. From a number of the same paper, of March 27th, we also derive the very gratifying intelligence which follows:

An institution is about to be established at a place called Hay Mount, near Fayetteville, to be called, "The Donaldson Academy and Manual Labor School." The intention is to connect with the best academical instruction and a good moral though not sectarian influence, (for to the latter they are strongly opposed) three hours a day of manual labor. The trustees of the school, in a publication in the paper to which we have just referred, express a belief that any young man, by the amount of labor proposed, if judiciously applied, can nearly support himself at the school; and that in this way the means of a thorough education will be brought within the reach of all classes of the community. But this is not all. They say that there are many young men, in the state, who would be glad to prepare themselves for the instruction of common schools; and to afford them facilities for doing so, is one prominent object of the institution.

Many applications have already been made from the country, for the admission of pupils, and measures have already been taken to procure a teacher, as soon as a suitable person can be obtained. Funds to the amount of $20,000 are supposed necessary to establish the institution on a permanent footing, and more than $10,000 have already been subscribed.

Michigan.—We also learn from the Detroit Courier of March 27, that the manual labor system of education is soon to be introduced into the flourishing territory of Michigan. The prominent objects which it is expected to secure, are the health and morals of the student; but it is also hoped that after a few years, the schools and colleges into which it is introduced, will all become self-supporting institutions.

Ohio.—Seven thousand dollars have been subscribed at Marietta, Ohio, to aid in the establishment, at that place, of a manual labor school, the principal purpose of which will be to prepare young men to become teachers of common schools. The plan contemplates the expenditure of $20,000; one half of which, it is believed will be raised in the Eastern States.—*Detroit Courier.*

Kentucky.—Cumberland College at Princeton, Ky. containing 60 or 70 students, is conducted on the manual labor system.

Primary Education in Colombia, South America.

The Governor of the province of Bogota has recently published a decree, for the improvement of primary schools. It states that it is not sufficient that the greater part of the province has been supplied with primary schools, it being necessary that "these plantations of education constantly operate to produce the objects for which they were founded;" and that the masters perform their duty, while the government keeps them under their special supervision. He therefore requires the political chiefs to see that a return of the state of the schools be made every six months, to be published.

The children in the primary schools are to be exercised once a week, in dancing, swimming, &c; and to receive moral instruction, and to perform religious duties. On Sunday, after public service, the schools are to be opened for the instruction of slaves, servants and other persons too poor, or too distant from them to obtain instruction otherwise.—*New York Advertiser.*

Munificent Donation.

The New England Asylum for the Blind has just received a donation of $30,000 from Col. Thomas H. Perkins of Boston, on condition that 50,000 more be raised in the month of May.

NOTICES.

The Little Philosopher, for Schools and Families; designed to teach Children to Think and to Reason about Common Things, and to Illustrate, for Parents and Teachers, methods of instructing and interesting Children. With a copious Introduction, explaining fully the method of using the book. By Jacob Abbott, Principal of the Mount Vernon School. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 24mo. pp. 172.

This little work evinces a thorough knowledge of the human mind and heart, and of the most successful methods of securing and fixing the attention of the young, on the subjects which we deem it important they should study. It is eminently calculated, *in the hands of judicious teachers*, to lead to one of the most important habits of life, that of observation; or, as it has been quaintly but aptly expressed, "going through the world with our eyes open."

It consists of short and familiar lessons, by way of question and answer, between a parent or teacher and his pupils, on the objects around them. Only a part of the questions are answered in the book; the remainder are designed to lead the pupil — and the teacher too — to *inquiry*.

Rudiments of Geography on a new plan, designed to assist the memory by Comparison and Classification, with numerous engravings of Manners, Customs, and Curiosities. By Wm. C. Woodbridge, Author of a system of "Universal Geography." A new edition. Enlarged, corrected, and improved. With Preparatory Lessons, a series of Questions, &c. Hartford: Oliver D. Cooke & Co. November, 1832.

School Atlas on a new plan, by W. C. Woodbridge.

The plan of this work was formed twenty years since, as the result of experience in instruction, and was published in 1821. It was the first geography pub-

lished containing a system of classification, or engravings to illustrate the peculiarities of each country, *as a part of the course of instruction*, instead of mere ornaments. We have been gratified to find, notwithstanding the multitude of school-geographies published since that period, several of which have, in our view, made unjustifiable use of its plan — that it retains its value in the view of those who have used it according to the method proposed by the author.

Ten years have passed since it has received any important alteration. Changes had become indispensable, and by a trifling reduction in the size of the type, important additions have been made, without any derangement of pages which can be inconvenient. 1. Some *additions* have been made to almost *every important country*, and especially to each *of the United States*. 2. The *extent*, *population*, and *population to a square mile* of every state and country (so far as known) are mentioned at the head of the description. 3. A number of valuable *engravings* of scenery and public objects, especially in the United States, have been added. 4. Several *new articles* are added. 5. *Questions on the text* are inserted, embracing all the most important particulars, and placed at the bottom of the page for the convenience of teachers and pupils. 6. The *references to general heads*, which show the pupil where to look for information, are more numerous than before. 7. *Cross questions* on the maps are added to those of each Grand Division, in order to call the pupil to review his lesson in another form.

In these ways the work is made to contain about three-fourths more, than the first editions, and more than *one hundred engravings and small maps*, are added to the Geography.

The maps of the Atlas have been redrawn on a new projection, exhibiting the countries in their connection, and on a comparative scale. They are engraved on steel in order to secure their permanent correctness. Three new charts, of Animals, of Comparative Magnitudes, and of the Pacific Ocean, have been added to the Atlas, together with questions and illustrations of the Charts; and the Atlas alone, now presents a system of Geography, almost complete. The number of engravings in the book has also been increased; and maps of the environs of our principal cities have been added.

The author has always presumed, that some smaller work would be used as introductory to the study, but in compliance with the wishes of many teachers, he has now inserted a set of Preparatory Lessons, substantially on a plan formed several years since, designed to lead the pupil, by the most simple and easy steps, to the *use of maps and geographical terms*, and what is more important, *to a full understanding of what he studies*—to some conception of the appearance of capes, cities, &c., and also to more distinct ideas of the form and magnitude of the earth, by means of a series of imaginary voyages. It is hoped that he will thus be enabled to look upon the map as it really is — as *an imperfect outline* of *great objects* and *great distances;* and that he will not deceive himself by remembering mere lines and dots, instead of gaining ideas of the countries they represent, and thus learning the *science of Maps*, instead of *Geography*.

History of the United States, to which is prefixed a Brief Historical Account of our (English) Ancestors, from the dispersion of Babel to their emigration to America; and of the Conquest of South America by the Spaniards. By Noah Webster, LL.D. New-Haven: Durrie & Peck, 1832. 18mo. pp. 324.

Few men are so well qualified by researches into our early history, and by personal knowledge of the characters and events of the last century, to write a work of this kind. The introduction is not strictly a part of the history of the United States; but it contains important and interesting information, which the pupil will rarely meet with elsewhere, and it may be passed over by those who wish to commence with more recent history. The narrative of the early settlement of the country, is obviously that of one who has more than a mere compiler's acquaintance with it. The Revolutionary history is peculiarly interesting, as coming from an eye and ear witness. The account of the climate and productions of the country, is accurate and valuable. We do not think the plan and style so well adapted to schools as that of some works already published; but it will be

the most agreeable to many teachers; and the spirit which pervades the work throughout, will give it great value with those who regard the *moral influence* of a school book most highly. We think it decidedly preferable to some other works, which are calculated to form premature, party politicians, by their narratives of the most recent history; but we hope that at least a chronological table of events, up to the close of the late war, may be added to future editions. Many of the engravings are novel; and the whole book is calculated to interest as well as to instruct.

Peter Parley's Tales about Ancient Rome, with some Account of Modern Italy. Illustrated by a Map and numerous Engravings. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. Square 16mo. pp. 208.

The interest of Peter Parley's works is well maintained in this. In style, it is not inferior to the rest, and the general character is the same. The descriptions are often highly graphic, but many of the engravings are wretchedly executed. We cannot excuse this defect in an author and publisher who has gained so much of his reputation, and done so much good, by improving the public taste in this respect. We presume it is owing to the process of stereotyping, which furnishes, without great care, very imperfect copies of the best engravings.

Botany for Beginners: An Introduction to Mrs Lincoln's "Familiar Lectures on Botany." For the Use of Common Schools, and the Younger Pupils of Higher Schools and Academies. By Mrs Almira H. L. Phelps, (formerly Mrs Lincoln,) Author of Familiar Lectures on Botany. Hartford: published by F. J. Huntington, 1833. pp. 250.

This work is chiefly an abridgment of Mrs Lincoln's "Familiar Lectures on Botany," to which it would serve as a valuable introduction. We have already expressed our opinion, that the plan here adopted, of beginning with the scientific arrangement, is much inferior to that in which the more simple forms and portions of a plant are first described; but the extensive circulation of the larger work, seems to indicate that this plan is approved by many; and as we have before observed, we are no optimists. Omitting many of the more difficult and less practical portions of the larger work, Mrs L. has retained the useful descriptions of the genera and species of such plants as can easily be found, and a vocabulary of scientific terms. The cuts are accurate and beautiful, and are placed on the same page with the descriptions they illustrate. The execution of the work is good.

Conversations on the Evidences of Christianity; in which the leading arguments of the best authors are arranged, developed, and connected with each other. Adapted to the use of Schools and Families. By Rev. J. L. Blake, A. M. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1832.

This work is well timed, and so far as a general examination allows us to judge, contains a valuable selection of arguments on a topic too much neglected in education. We think however, it supposes such an extent of reading, and so much familiarity with great authors, as to render it unsuitable for most schools. A good school book on this subject is still much needed.

Our first impression was, and we believe that of every reader will be, that this work was the production of the gentleman whose name is in the title. To our surprise, however, we found on reading the preface, that it is an English work (by what author it is not stated) simply *edited* in this country. We certainly consider it the *duty* of Americans to adapt foreign works to American schools, when this is necessary. But we can find no apology for affixing the name of an editor, in a manner thus calculated to mislead at home, and dishonor us abroad; especially when it is repeated, as in the present instance.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

JUNE, 1833.

Art. I. — Manual Labor.

First Annual Report of the Society for Promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions, including the Report of their General Agent, Theodore D. Weld. *January 28th,* 1833. New York. S. W. Benedict & Co. 8vo. pp. 120.

We belong to that class of persons, who possess, like their fellow men, a material and an immaterial part, mutually and intimately dependent on each other, and yet so unfortunately trained, that each is incessantly suffering by the neglect of the other, and each in its turn, retards the progress and impairs the comforts of its companion. In preparing this class for the duties of life, the great object would seem to be to procure them exemption from that universal sentence, 'In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread.' But in seeking to escape it, they meet with a just punishment; for the bread thus eaten in defiance of the law of nature is but the food of disease, or the clog to that favored portion of man which struggles, not for just preëminence only, but for an independence not granted to it on earth. We do not believe that any man, born with a perfect frame, was designed to live without bodily labor. If it were so, why were not his limbs originally formed of some material more delicate than bones, and muscles, and tendons, whose strength is sufficient, when they are not neglected or abused, to tear asunder wood, and even iron? Why such a costly and wonderful apparatus, of so much strength, to move in every direction,

if it were only to move itself, to open a book, or to hold a pen! We might as well imagine that the levers and cogs of a steam engine were only designed to turn its own wheels, or to lash into a foam the waters which surround the ship, in which it is placed. And yet the education of a large part of our population is conducted as if it were so.

For ourselves, we are *ashamed*, that of all this wonderful apparatus of our bodies, there is only one portion which we have strength and skill to use, in any such manner as to earn our daily bread; and this is the most delicate and frail portion, even if it be the noblest, which is thus compelled to do double duty. In return it makes double drafts upon the strength of other portions of the system, which it only employs as a slave to wait its bidding, and its leisure, before they are allowed to stir; which it daily enfeebles with sloth and indulgence, and thus destroys their propensity, and their power even to wait upon it. We gaze with admiration and almost with envy upon the hale countenance, and the strong frame, and the vigorous labors, and beautiful and useful productions of those in whom the material man has received something like the proper attention; and we witness with astonishment the pleasure they derive from every sense, and every organ, the freedom with which they do and enjoy all that they desire, and the sweet repose that waits at their call, when they are temperate in all things. We feel our inferiority. We lament that labor, — daily, vigorous labor, did not form a part of our education at every stage of its progress; and we long to see the rising generation exempted from this painful inferiority, and its more painful consequences.

Few publications have given us so much pleasure in this view, as the Report of Mr Weld, to the Manual Labor Society of New York. We regard it as ranking with the most important works of this age of active benevolence, and we sincerely hope it will have a wider circulation than we can give to its statements. It contains materials for a fashionable quarto, which would vie with almost any that we know, in extent, and variety, and importance to our country, and to every individual in it who does not labor. A review would but allow us space to give a table of its contents, but we cannot refuse ourselves the pleasure of inserting an extract which contains the principles on which the whole is based.

'God has revealed his will to man upon the subject of education, and has furnished every human being with a copy of the revelation. It is written in the language of nature, and can be understood without a commentary. This revelation consists in the universal consciousness of those influences which body and mind exert upon each other — influences innumerable, incessant, and all controlling; the body continually modifying the state of the mind, and the mind ever varying

the condition of the body. These two make up the compound which we call man; not the body alone, not the mind alone, but both conjoined in one by mutual laws. *These mutual laws form the only rational basis for a system of education.* A system based upon any thing else is wrong in its first principles; its combinations are incongruities, its tendencies are perversions, and its results, ruin. True, the body has no value intrinsically, but its connection with the mind gives it infinite worth. Every man who has marked the reciprocal action of body and mind surely need not be told that mental and physical training should go together.

Even the slightest change in the condition of the body often produces an effect upon the mind so sudden and universal, as to seem miraculous. The body is the mind's palace; but darken its windows, and it is a prison. It is the mind's instrument; sharpened, it cuts keenly; blunted, it can only bruise and disfigure. It is the mind's reflector; if bright, it flashes day; if dull, it diffuses twilight. It is the mind's servant; if robust, it moves with swift pace upon its errands; if a cripple, it hobbles on crutches. We attach infinite value to the mind, and justly; but in this world it is good for nothing without the body. Can a man think without the brain? Can he feel without nerves? Can he move without muscles? If not, let him look well to the *condition* of his brain, nerves, and muscles. The ancients were right in the supposition that an unsound body is incompatible with a sound mind.

Climate, by its influence upon the body, produces endless diversities of mind. Compare the timid, indolent, vivacious and irritable inhabitant of the line, with the phlegmatic and stupid Greenlander. Every man knows how the state of his mind is modified by different periods of the day, changes in the weather, and the seasons.* He who attempts mental effort during a fit of indigestion will cease to wonder that Plato located the soul in the stomach. A few drops of water upon the face, or a feather burnt under the nostril of one in a swoon, awakens the mind from its deep sleep of unconsciousness. A slight impression made upon a nerve often breaks the chain of thought, and the mind tosses in tumult. Let a peculiar vibration quiver upon the nerve of hearing, and a tide of wild emotion rushes over the soul.

> "By turns they feel the glowing mind
> Disturbed, delighted, raised, refined."

Strike up the Marseilles in the streets of Paris, and you lash the populace into fury. Sing the Ranz des Vaches to the Swiss soldiers, and they gush into tears. The man who can think with a gnat in his eye, or reason while the nerve of a tooth is twinging, or when his stomach is nauseated, or when his lungs are oppressed and laboring; he who can give wing to his imagination when shivering with cold, or fainting with heat, or worn down with toil, can claim exemption from the common lot of humanity. In different periods of life,

* It is a well known fact, that almost all the suicides which take place in London and Paris are committed during the *rainy season*.

the mind waxes and wanes with the body; in youth, cheerful, full of daring, quick to see, and keen to feel; in old age, desponding, timid, perception dim, and emotion languid. When the blood circulates with unusual energy, the coward rises into a hero; when it creeps feebly, the hero sinks into a coward.

The effects produced by different states of the mind upon the body are equally sudden and powerful. Plato used to say, that 'all the diseases of the body proceed from the soul.' The expression of the countenance *is mind visible. Bad news* weakens the action of the heart, oppresses the lungs, destroys appetite, stops digestion, and partially suspends all the functions of the system. An emotion of shame flushes the face; fear blanches it; joy illuminates it, and an instant thrill electrifies a million nerves. Surprise spurs the pulse into a gallop. Delirium infuses giant energy. Volition commands, and hundreds of muscles spring to execute. Powerful emotion often kills the body at a stroke. Chilo, Diagoras, and Sophocles, died of joy at the Elean games. The news of a defeat killed Philip V. One of the popes died of an emotion of the ludicrous, on seeing his pet monkey robed in pontificals, and occupying the chair of state. Muley Moluck was carried upon the field of battle in the last stages of an incurable disease. Upon seeing his army give way, he leaped from the litter, rallied his panic stricken troops, rolled back the tide of battle, shouted victory, and died. The door-keeper of Congress expired upon hearing of the surrender of Cornwallis. Eminent public speakers have often died, either in the midst of an impassioned burst of eloquence, or when the deep emotion that produced it had suddenly subsided. The late Mr Pinckney of Baltimore, Mr Emmet of New York, and the Hon. Ezekiel Webster of New Hampshire, are recent instances. Lagrave, the young Parisian, died a few months since, when he heard that the musical prize for which he had competed was adjudged to another. The recent case of Hills in New-York is fresh in the memory of all. He was apprehended for theft, taken before the police, and though in perfect health, mental agony forced the blood from his nostrils. He was carried out, and died.

The experience of every day demonstrates that the body and mind are endowed with such mutual susceptibilities, that each is alive to the slightest influence of the other. What is the common sense inference from this fact? Manifestly this: that the body and the mind *should be educated together.* The states of the body are infinitely various. All these different states differently affect the mind. They are causes, and their effects have all the variety which mark the causes that produce them. If then different conditions of the body differently affect the mind, some electrifying, and others paralyzing its energies, what duty can be plainer than *to preserve the body in that condition which will most favorably affect the mind.* If the Maker of both was infinitely wise, then the highest *permanent* perfection of the mind can be found only in connection with the most healthful state of the body. Has infinite wisdom established laws by which the best condition of the mind is *permanently* connected with any other

than the best condition of the body? When all the bodily functions are perfectly performed, the mind must be in a better state than when these functions are imperfectly performed. And now I ask, is not that system of education fundamentally defective, which makes no provision for putting the body in its best condition, and for keeping it in that condition? — a system which expends its energies upon the mind alone, and surrenders the body either to the irregular promptings of perverted instinct, or to the hap-hazard impulses of chance or necessity? — a system which aims solely at the development of mind, and yet overlooks those very principles which are indispensable to produce that development, and transgresses those very laws which constitute the only groundwork of rational education?

Such a system sunders what God has joined together, and impeaches the wisdom which pronounced that union good. It destroys the symmetry of human proportion, and makes man a monster. It reverses the order of the constitution; commits outrage upon its principles; breaks up its reciprocities; makes war alike upon physical health and intellectual energy, dividing man against himself; arming body and mind in mutual hostility, and prolonging the conflict until each falls a prey to the other, and both surrender to ruin.

We repeat the assertion; the best condition of the mental powers cannot be found *permanently* connected with any other than the best condition of the bodily powers, and this both as a matter of philosophy and fact. If this be true, the system of education which is generally pursued in the United States is unphilosophical in its elementary principles; ill adapted to the condition of man; practically mocks his necessities, and is intrinsically absurd. The high excellences of the present system in other respects are fully appreciated. Modern education has indeed achieved wonders. It has substituted things for names, experiment for hypothesis, first principles for arbitrary rules. It has simplified processes; stripped knowledge of its abstraction, and thrown it into visibility; made practical results rather than mystery the standard by which to measure the value of attainment, and facts, rather than conjecture, its circulating medium.

All this is cheerfully admitted. But what has been done meanwhile for the body? What provision has been made for the daily wants of its muscles and nerves? What aids have been furnished to the organs of digestion, secretion, and circulation? What means have been provided for preserving the body in its best condition, and thus not only giving healthful energy to its functions, but securing to the mind that permanent vigor which results from such a condition of the bodily organs? What recognition has been made of those irrepealable laws which connect the mind with a physical organization, and which graduate its states by the *condition* of that organization? In fine, how has modern education been giving practical testimony to the fact that man is a compound — a creature of flesh as well as intellect? Has it been by dividing him in twain, cultivating one half with unremitting care, and leaving the other to stagnate in the torpor of inaction, or to glean a momentary energy from the contingences of

chance? Has it been by giving birth to an order of things in which a sound mind with a sound body is already a rare union, and is fast becoming an anomaly? If these are its witnesses, the world is full of them; and the utterance of their testimony is as the voice of many waters. The prevailing neglect of the body in the present system of education is a defect for which no excellence can atone. This is not a recent discovery. Two centuries ago, Milton wrote a pamphlet upon this subject, addressed to Samuel Hartlib, Esq. of London, in which he eloquently urged the connection of physical with mental education in literary institutions. Locke inveighs against it in no measured terms. Since that time, Jahn, Ackerman, Salzman, and Franck, in Germany; Tissot, Rousseau, and Londe, in France, have all written largely upon the subject. To these may be added the celebrated Fellenberg, the veteran Swiss educator, and the apostle of modern education.*

In our own country the imperfections of the present system have been lamented by our most eminent men. Forty years ago, Dr Rush of Philadelphia, published his views at length, recommending the connection of agricultural and mechanical labor with literary institutions, and saying, 'the student should work with his own hands in the intervals of study.' More recently, much has been written upon the subject. President Lindsley of the Nashville University, Professor Mitchell of the Medical College of Ohio, Professor Harris of the Medical Institution of Philadelphia, President Fisk of the Wesleyan University, Professor Hitchcock of Amherst College, the late Mr Cornelius, and many others, have publicly and with solemn earnestness, borne their testimony against this feature of the prevailing system, and have exhorted the community to cast about in earnest for the appropriate remedy.'

We cannot better close this article than with the remarks of Dr Warren in a lecture before the American Institute of Instruction.

'Let me conclude by intreating your attention to a revision of the existing plans of education, in what relates to the preservation of health. Too much of the time of the better educated part of young persons is in my humble opinion devoted to literary pursuits and sedentary occupations, and too little to the acquisition of the corporeal powers indispensable to make the former practically useful. *If the present system does not undergo some change, I much apprehend we shall see a degenerate and sinking race, such as came to exist among the higher classes in France before the revolution, and such as now deforms a large part of the noblest families in Spain.*'

* See 'Sketches of Hofwyl,' in the 'Annals of Education,' written by the able editor of that invaluable periodical during a year's residence among the scenes which he so interestingly describes.

Art. II. — Colleges and Common Schools.

An Introductory Discourse, delivered before the American Institute of Instruction at their Third Annual Meeting, Aug. 23, 1833. *By* Francis C. Gray. Boston: 1832.

The Cause of Farmers and the University of Tennessee. Two Discourses. By Philip Lindsley, *President of the University of Nashville.* Nashville: 1832.

An Address to the Working Men of New England on the state of Education, and on the condition of the Producing Classes in England and America. With particular reference to the effect of manufacturing (as now conducted) on the health and happiness of the poor, and on the safety of our Republic. By Seth Luther. Boston: 1832.

Mr Editor; My object in thus placing the names of these interesting discourses together, is to make them the basis of a few remarks on the subject of improvement in *education.*

Perhaps there is no subject which the intelligent part of mankind are more generally agreed in regarding as of the first *importance.* The period has gone by when it was deemed heresy to talk of educating the *common people.* Even in the monarchical governments of Europe, — and I might add under the still more arbitrary government of the Grand Sultan, a determination has gone forth to redeem mankind from ignorance; were it only as a preventive of crime.

While there is *less* difference among men, even those who are alike republican in their feelings, habits and sentiments in regard to the *importance* of the object, there exists a *wide* difference of opinion in regard to the *means of attaining it.* Some suppose it can be done only through legislative or governmental influence; — others that it can be effected only by the people themselves, either in an individual or social capacity, to the exclusion of all or nearly all legislative interference. Others again there are, who suppose the work of improvement would best be accomplished by the combination of both.

In regard to the question; 'How shall we begin the work?' the friends of improvement in education may be again subdivided into the following classes. 1. Those who suppose we must commence by reforming universities and colleges. 2. Those who suppose we must begin at the infant and elementary school. 3. Those who suppose that reformation in all should and *must* be carried on simultaneously; and 4. Those who think it of less consequence *where* we begin, provided we adopt the spirit and and language of Brougham, and immediately BEGIN, — *somewhere.*

President Lindsley is in favor of combining legislative with individual effort; and probably these are Mr Luther's views. Mr Gray's opinion on this point does not so clearly appear. But on

the questions, *How* and *where* shall the work of reform be commenced, and how shall it be conducted, — they all differ widely.

Mr Gray supposes that while the public demand for a *higher state of culture* in every department of education is obvious and *imperative*, 'the natural mode of producing this result is to *begin at the top;* to improve the condition of our highest seminaries.' But we suppose by 'highest seminaries,' he means universities and colleges *as they are*. He seems to take it for granted that the grades of schools and the marked distinctions which now exist, must continue.

In this view, Mr Editor, I cannot entirely concur. Reformation of any kind, on these principles, can never be expected; and if we are to rest our hopes here, he would be the true patriot, who should contrive to congeal the world in its present condition. When or where has reform been attempted, until the people had made the first movement? Certainly never; at least in any representative government. The genius of republican institutions requires that we should begin the work of improvement where we can; but this will not usually be at the 'top,' as it is called; but rather at the *bottom*. To purify the streams, it is natural to purify, in the first place, the fountains.

President Lindsley takes a better view of the subject. At the same time that he is an untiring advocate for common schools, and has proved himself such, not only in the two discourses which are before us, but in a series of essays on public schools, published two or three years since in the Nashville Republican, he is also a strong advocate of colleges and other high schools; and insists that the cause of the one is the cause of the other. Unlike some of the advocates for 'equal universal education,' as it is called, who think it indispensable to decry colleges in order to advance the education of the people at large, he supposes they are all needful parts of the same system, and must rise or fall together. In proof of this he thus adverts to the condition of Europe.

'Wherever the university has been suffered to flourish and expand, and to send forth its salutary streams among the people, there have been growing up both the capacity and the determination to resist all gross oppression. And *there* too, a decided progress has been made in all the arts of peace, and especially in the science of government. In Spain, Portugal and Russia, a fool or a ruffian may be tolerated on the throne, because the university has been kept in bondage and the people in ignorance. But were a Nero seated on the throne of England to-morrow, he would not dare to violate a single law of the realm. He could no more act the part of a Richard or a Henry, than the meanest subject could commit murder with impunity.'

This view is certainly just. For nothing is better proved than that in those countries of Europe where the greatest proportion of

the inhabitants receive an education at the college or the university, common schools are most numerous and efficient. In what parts of Europe is common education better attended to than in Germany and Scotland? Yet in Germany there are 22 universities, with 1000 instructors, and 15,000 to 20,000 students. Even in our own country it is impossible not to see that the same rule obtains. In those very States where there are the greatest proportion of college students, there is also the greatest proportion of children who are instructed in common or public schools. It may be said that the schools, if as numerous, are not *so good* as they would be without the colleges. In the immediate *vicinity* of those institutions this may be true, but not to any considerable extent.

In view of these facts — for facts they must be — how does it happen that such a prejudice exists against colleges, and that the opinion is studiously circulated that they stand in the way of common schools? That an *ignorant* community should be prejudiced against those who are more intelligent than themselves, and that the strength of this prejudice is in proportion to the ignorance and narrow-mindedness which prevail, is not so much to be wondered at; but that many persons of expanded and liberal minds should take the lead in disseminating jealousies against institutions for the promotion of liberal education, is rather unaccountable. On this subject Pres. L. remarks with some severity:

'Base and reckless and suicidal is the policy which seeks to prostrate the college and university under the specious pretext of giving to the people a common-school education.

I care as little about names as any man. If the *name* of college or university be unsavory in the ears of the people or of the people's guardians and conscience keepers, let it be cashiered. Let our colleges and universities be called academies, lyceums, gymnasia, common schools, or popular intellectual workshops — or by any other republican appellation, if any more acceptable or less invidious can be invented. It is the thing — the substance — the knowledge — the mental enlargement and energy and power — that I would give to the people in as ample measure as possible. That they may be sovereign in fact as well as in name. That they may be capable of knowing and guarding and asserting their own rights and liberties.

I have asserted that colleges have done good, or that learning has been useful. That, like wealth and power, when possessed only by a few, it has been often abused to the injury of others. That our college graduates have generally been the faithful sentinels and advocates of popular rights. That if any appear to be swerving from the straight path of rectitude, it is because they have discovered an ignorant mass on which to operate. That the only remedy for the evil — the only preventive of its recurrence and of its rapid increase — is the immediate education of a much larger proportion of the people. Not the giving them what is called a common school education — the most of them have this already — and it does not suffice. The man who can merely read and write is no match for the thorough-bred political gladiator. He cannot dispel the sophistry even

of the village attorney or of the village gazette. He is just the man to be led astray by the newspaper essayist. And the newspaper is the very engine employed to gull the people who can read, but who are too ignorant to discriminate, to reason and to judge.

None but enemies of the people will ever gravely maintain that a common school education, in the ordinary meaning of the phrase, is all they need. This would be virtually telling them to be hewers of wood and drawers of water under political taskmasters forever. Why is it that our lawyers rule the nation, and fill all our lucrative offices, from the presidency downwards? Simply and solely because they can do something more than read and write. If our mechanics and farmers would enter the lists with our lawyers, they must acquire the same degree of intellectual power and address. Nor would this prove a very difficult achievement. The mechanics and farmers might easily beat them at their own game and with their own weapons. If they did but understand their interests, they would unite with the schoolmaster, make common cause with him, and assert their natural rights and influence in society. Let them take this matter of schools and colleges into their own hands. Let them rally around our most respectable and meritorious, but often poor, persecuted and reviled universities. Let them contribute the trifle of a hundred thousand dollars or so, to their funds, and send a few hundred of their clever youths to acquire the art of lawyer-fighting — and we shall soon see them at the head of affairs, as they ought to be. This is the best advice that I can give them. If they prefer ignorance, and are determined to keep their sons in ignorance — then, farewell to all their greatness, and to all the dignity which their position might justly command. They may frown upon colleges — they may abuse them — they may starve them — they may scatter them to the winds — but they only sink themselves the lower in the general scale of humanity.'

In order to avoid being misunderstood, he repeatedly assures us that he has no prejudice against lawyers, or either of the learned professions. He would have the farmer, the mechanic, the manufacturer, — indeed all men, were it possible, belong to the learned professions; that is, be truly and liberally and practically educated. But I cannot do better than to quote his own language on this point.

'But our farmers ought, beyond all question, to be liberally educated; that is, they ought to have the best education that is attainable. I do not say that *every* farmer ought to go to college, or to become a proficient in Greek and Latin. I speak of them as a class: and by a liberal education, I mean such a course of intellectual discipline as will fit them to sustain the rank which they ought to hold in this republic. They are by right the sovereigns of the land, because they constitute an overwhelming majority. Why do they not then, in fact, rule the land? Because, and only because, they are too ignorant. And thus they sink into comparative insignificance: and suffer themselves to be used as the mere instruments of creating their own masters, who care as little for their real welfare as if they were born to be beasts of burden.

The same general remarks apply to mechanics and to all the laboring classes, in proportion to their numbers. An education, even of the highest order, may be as valuable to them as to others. In our free country, a farmer or mechanic, with equal talents and intelligence, would be more

likely to become a popular favorite, than either a lawyer or the well-bred heir of an opulent patrician family. Suppose a farmer could speak as well, write as well, appear as well versed in history, geography, statistics, jurisprudence, politics, and other matters of general and local interest, as the lawyer — would he not stand a better chance of being elevated to the highest, most honorable, and most lucrative offices?

The grand heresy on the subject of education seems to have arisen from the usage which obtained at an early period in modern European society, and which many centuries have sanctioned and confirmed — namely: that a learned or liberal education was and is deemed important only for a liberal profession, or for gentlemen of wealth and leisure. Hence the church, the bar, and the medical art have nearly monopolized the learning of the world. Our people reason and act in accordance with the same absurd and aristocratic system. The *cui bono* is upon every tongue. 'What *good*,' it is asked, 'will college learning do my son? He is to be a farmer, a mechanic, a merchant.'

Now, I would answer such a question, in the first place, directly, thus: 'A college education, or the best, most thorough, and most extensive education that can be acquired, will be of immense benefit to your son, simply as a farmer, mechanic, merchant, manufacturer, sailor or soldier.' And I would patiently endeavor to show him how, and in what respects; but I will not attempt to illustrate such truisms at present. But, in the second place, I would reply to my plain friend's interrogatory, thus: 'Educate your son in the best manner possible, because you expect him to be a MAN, and not a *horse* or an *ox*. You cannot tell what good he may achieve, or what important offices he may discharge in his day. For aught you know, he may, if you do your duty by him, become the President of the United States. At any rate, he has reason and understanding, which ought to be cultivated for their own sake. Should he eventually live in the most humble retirement, and subsist by the hardest manual labor, still he may enjoy an occasional intellectual feast of the purest and most exhilarating kind.' If all our laboring fellow citizens could relish books, and should have access to them, what a boundless field of innocent recreation and profitable entertainment would not be always at hand and within their reach? What a flood of cheering light and happiness would not be shed upon the dark path, and poured into the bitter cup of millions of rational immortal beings; who, at present, rank but little above the brute in their pursuits, habits and enjoyments?

In reference to elementary education, a parent ought never to inquire what his child is to be — whether a farmer or a lawyer — but should educate him in the best manner practicable, and endeavor to inspire him with sentiments of virtue and independence, which would preserve him from the vulgar pride of being ashamed to earn his living by honest industry. Besides, learning is itself a treasure — an estate — of which no adverse fortune can ever deprive its possessor. It will accompany, and console, and support him to the world's end, and to the close of life.

Our farmers and laboring classes have as much leisure for miscellaneous reading and study as the professional — or even as the wealthy or fashionable *idlers* who do nothing. Paradoxical as this may seem, it is notoriously the fact. Even in England, where this leisure is not half so great as the poorest of our people habitually enjoy, it has been discovered that the most ignorant and debased and hard-worked manufacturing operatives have abundant time for much intellectual cultivation.'

In regard to the assertion that 'our farmers and laboring classes have as much leisure for miscellaneous reading and study as the

professional,' although I am fully of opinion that Prés. L. is correct so far as this country is concerned, yet I am aware that those who have never made the comparison for themselves, generally think otherwise. Personal experience and much observation have taught me that with an equal thirst for information, and the same facilities for procuring books, &c, there is no class of men who could make more real progress in the cultivation of their minds than farmers. But I think that in regard to the state of things in Europe, there is a little mistake. His remarks may be applicable to a few, but not to the mass of the community; they form the exception rather than the general rule.

In speaking of the evils of poverty, he takes the usual ground, that ignorance is its cause. He does not expect to level the distinctions between the rich and the poor in any other way than by properly educating the latter. The following are his remarks:

'Give them an education. Provide for them the means of instruction to as great an extent and amount as possible. A well educated poor youth will always rise to honorable distinction. One successful instance will stimulate others to try the same course. And thus a spirit of emulation— an ambition to excel — will be diffused throughout the ranks of our poor fellow citizens, which will speedily elevate them to a respectable standing, and qualify them to reach the highest posts of honor and fortune. This is a matter of every day occurrence in the Eastern and Middle States. There, the laboring farmer or mechanic, who would be thought a very poor man in Tennessee, and who labors more intensely than a Tennessee slave, strives by every effort and sacrifice to procure for one or more of his sons a liberal education. The son, thus educated, as soon as he leaves college, is able to provide for himself, by teaching school perhaps, until he studies a profession — assists in educating his younger brothers — and, by and by, appears among the distinguished lawyers, physicians, divines, professors, legislators or judges of his country. The good old father and mother are then amply rewarded for all their toils and self-denial, by a grateful, honorable and affluent posterity; who cause their sun to set in peace, and their gray hairs to descend with joy and hope to the grave.

I have witnessed hundreds of such cases. Now nothing of this kind could take place were it not for the well endowed colleges with which that portion of our country is favored. Colleges are there, as they will be every where, the genuine levellers of all distinctions created by mere wealth. They open their doors wide, and dispense their honors to merit, whether in the garb of penury or affluence. And real merit will presently find or *create* a path to just pre-eminence. The poor man's son, who knows that he must live by his wits, often outstrips, in the same career, the rich man's son — because the latter trusts to his expected patrimony, and therefore despises labor and exertion. Visit any eastern college, and you will find nearly all the industrious successful students belonging to the middling and poorer classes. Look again at the thousands who are reputably practising the learned professions, and you will be told that they have nobly risen from the humblest walks of life. They were once your poor, (perhaps despised) studious college lads, who had no money to spend in the mad frolics and ruinous dissipation, in which the sons of fortune and family sought notoriety and academic *renown*; but who have long since dwindled into comparative insignificance, or sunk into a premature grave.

'How absurd then to depreciate and denounce colleges as being hostile to the poor or beneficial only to the rich! The truth is, the rich always build, endow and sustain them, while the comparatively poor reap the principal advantage. Were our opulent citizens desirous to erect themselves into a distinct and superior *order* — a monied aristocracy — they could not devise a surer method of compassing so foul a design, than by discouraging and frowning upon every scheme for the dissemination of knowledge. Let them put down or prevent the establishment and growth of the higher seminaries — of colleges and universities — and they might then monopolize all the intelligence and power of the state; because they could easily educate their own sons abroad at any expense, and thus fit them for the learned professions and for all the higher offices of the republic. Will the people tamely submit to so gross a usurpation, and suffer themselves to be cozened out of their dearest birthright and most valuable privileges?'

While Pres. L. is obviously *enthusiastic* in the cause of education, he is by no means *visionary*. On the contrary, his suggestions are eminently practical. He takes men and things *as they are;* and with clear-sighted and common sense views of what they *may be made,* rather than of what it is desirable they *should be;* he goes directly and fearlessly forward to the task which he assigns himself. This is nowhere more evident than in the following remarks. The writer had been insisting on the importance of legislative aid to assist in giving to an increased number of the poorer class the blessings of a liberal education.

'In this way too, the state would soon be supplied with accomplished schoolmasters. For be it known and remembered, that no where on earth does there exist a good and efficient system of common schools, except where colleges and universities are most generously cherished; and where the largest number of poor youths are found among their *alumni.* These become teachers of necessity. This is matter of fact — of universal experience — and the most ingenious special pleader in behalf of popular education cannot cite an exception to the rule. The truth is, the cause of colleges and of schools of all sorts is one and indivisible. And he who should attempt to establish *good* common schools without colleges, would be compelled to import a monthly cargo of foreign teachers, or stand before the public a convicted Utopian visionary.

Men of talents and of adequate literary qualifications will never become teachers of choice, except where the profession is both lucrative and honorable. No occupation is deemed more vexatious, and none is so utterly thankless. But men will teach school rather than starve: and when our colleges shall send forth their *poor* graduates who must immediately do something for a livelihood, they will of course be willing to teach. They will look out for academies or classical schools in the first instance: — and here they may train many perhaps, poor like themselves, who will teach common schools. Thus, in time, the market will be supplied. All the schools will co-operate in the production of this supply. They will mutually aid and sustain each other. The most gifted and enterprising lads in the lowest schools will contrive, no matter how poor, to advance to the higher; and eventually gain admission into the college. And thus the whole intellectual machinery will be fairly at work; and, by the state purse, may be duly kept in operation forever.

Who ever heard of a liberally educated man who was not the hearty devoted supporter of every judicious common school system? Such an anomaly our country has not yet produced. Our most illustrious patriots and sages have been the founders of colleges, and apostles in the cause of universal education.

It is no uncommon thing, in our country, for men of considerable influence to boast that they have never seen the inside of a college — that, like Franklin and Washington, they have advanced in knowledge and reputation by their own unassisted efforts; and consequently, that colleges are good for nothing, or at best fitted only for the training of drones and blockheads. Now, besides the extreme modesty of recording their own names upon the same tablets with Franklin and Washington, they might be reminded that those truly great men never uttered such a boast, and never decried such institutions. Franklin was the father of the University of Pennsylvania, and Washington endowed a college in his native state. No man, therefore, will ever give any very convincing evidence that he resembles Franklin or Washington, by a supercilious affectation of contempt for colleges, or by a narrow, invidious, systematic, malignant hostility towards them.'

But to quote all that is interesting and appropriate to my present purpose would be to quote nearly the whole of the two discourses. I shall only add, therefore, the following single paragraph, which shows what erroneous notions prevail in regard to *self-education*. Nothing which is said is more striking; and nothing, it is believed, more true.

'We have heard and read much of self-made and self-taught men. The truth is, that every eminent man — especially among the literary, the scientific, the professional — has been a self-made man. Bacon and Locke, Milton and Newton, Burke and Mansfield were as truly self-made and self-taught men, as were Johnson and Franklin, Ferguson and Rittenhouse, Herschel and Fulton. The first enjoyed the advantages of a college directly, the latter indirectly: and all attained distinction by the same intellectual process. They severally availed themselves of all the instruments and sources of knowledge within their reach: and persevering industry, as a law of their existence, ensured them victory and honor. Rumford, Hutton, Davy, Sherman, Pope, Wythe were as much debtors to the college as were Barrow, Edwards, Dwight, Fox, Scott or Canning. The books, the science, the literary taste, the universal consideration attendant on superior mental endowments, which colleges had created, multiplied, diffused, and everywhere exhibited, led Franklin, as they have led thousands, to imitate, to master, to emulate, to rival the excellence thus presented to their view and to their ambition. Had there been no colleges or seminaries of liberal learning — no literary or scientific enterprise or spirit abroad — Franklin might have been a Confucius or a Numa among barbarians, but he would never have been the first of philosophers and statesmen among the most enlightened nations of the earth.'

Mr Luther's address embraces a great variety of topics, many of which are of the deepest interest and highest practical importance. His great object, however, seems to be, to expose the evil tendency of employing children so many hours a day in our manufactories, to the neglect, and often the permanent injury of their health, their

minds, and their morals. This he does, not so much by directing the public attention to abuses existing in this country — though he has occasionally adverted to these — as those which exist in the manufacturing districts of Europe; and which he thinks must eventually be experienced in this country, unless a reform can be effected. He particularly insists on the importance of this subject with reference to health. His address is replete with important information, and richly deserves the attention of every American. By this is not meant that everything which is said deserves the unqualified *approbation* of every American, but as the writer may be supposed to speak the sentiments of one class of the community, his opinions ought to be known; and there is much reason to believe that many of them are just.

That he should have accompanied his remarks by a severity which borders upon unkindness, and may even be construed into that very abuse of which he himself so loudly complains, is to be regretted. There is surely some regard to be paid, even to the *manner* of performing a duty, however imperious; and it certainly affords no very favorable indication of the state of a person's feelings when he tells us that he is determined to '*hew to the line, and let the chips fly in whose eyes they may.*'

Nor is it correct to insinuate that farmers, mechanics, manufacturers, &c, 'produce all the wealth,' which exists; or that they 'enjoy only a small portion of it themselves.' Franklin and Watt, and Whitney, while merely employing their intellectual powers in conceiving those useful inventions which they afterwards brought forth — and he whose mind, no less inventive, has laid the plan of an improved school book, is no less a *laborer*, a *producer of wealth*, — a *working man*, in any reasonable sense of the term, than he who raises wheat, or manufactures it into flour. And as to actual *enjoyment* — the balance is altogether in favor of the very classes which Mr L. thinks enjoy so little. They eat more wholesome food, they digest it better; their sleep is sound, sweet, and unbroken; they suffer less from changes of temperature than the wealthy; and their industry is more favorable to morals, and quite as much so to healthy intellectual development. On this subject I speak, not only from theory and much observation, but from experience. What advantages then, in this point of view, does wealth afford? I do not ask, what advantages it *might* afford; but what *does* it?

But my business is chiefly with Mr Luther's views of education. On this subject he adopts, as his own sentiments, the language of Gen. Brigham, Mayor of Providence, R. I.; and every American will, it seems to me, cheerfully respond to them.

'In a free government, education which elevates the mind, dif-

fuses intelligence, and leads to virtue, is the only sure foundation of freedom and public safety. Without education, a portion of the community is cast into the shade, and oftentimes intellect of the first order is lost to its possessor and to the world. Children of the poor, as well as of the rich, ought to be instructed both in letters and morals, and NO STATE OF SOCIETY CAN EXCUSE THE NEGLECT OF IT. If we wish to live in a community peaceably, orderly, free from excess, outrage and crime, we must use our exertions for the general diffusion of education, of intelligence, among every class of our citizens. In this course we shall find our interest and happiness. In looking over the catalogue of offenders we shall find that vice of every kind and degree most generally springs from ignorance. The want of learning and moral instruction leads to idleness, dissipation and crime, and often ends in ruin.'

In like manner, no person who has a drop of patriotic blood in his veins, will hesitate to deplore with Mr L. that principle of avarice which leads men, — more perhaps in this country than any other — to neglect everything else, not excepting the very education of their children, and resort to 'all kinds of *meanness* to get rich.' It is in the highest degree reprehensible.

But I have not time at present, to follow Mr L. through the whole course of his remarks, though it might be interesting to do so; and to exhibit, through the medium of your columns, the unmeasured abuse to which the factory system as hitherto conducted, subjects very young children. Mr L.'s pamphlet is before the public, and they should read it for themselves. A few remarks on some of the prominent topics, must, for the present, suffice.

As you have often called the attention of your readers to this subject, they will easily recollect the abuses which the physical frames of the poor children sustain, in the manufactories of Great Britain. Mr L. has confirmed your statements, and presented some kindred facts which should strike us with horror. He has shown, upon the authority of a member of parliament, that in a worsted mill employing over 400 females, the average longevity is not more than 13 years. A surgeon found 47 out of 167 children in a mill in Manchester, deformed from excessive labor. Mr L. has shown that they *often* labor 14 or 15 hours a day, and occasionally 16 or 18. It is easy to sustain this statement, and to show from parliamentary documents that they not only labor 16 or 18 hours a day in some cases, but occasionally even *the whole night!*

We find from these very documents that in about 20 different manufacturing towns of Great Britain, children of all ages, from seven upward, work 12 to 16 hours daily, and not a few all night. 'In Glasgow, near 1000 children from eight to twelve years old are employed till 11 to 12 at night, or even till one in the morning.'

It should be remembered, too, that much of the labor is performed in a standing posture, or with the body a little stooping, which is equally injurious. Some of these children are made so deformed that they are compelled, if life lasts so long, to go upon crutches before they are twenty years of age. Nothing will now be said of the flogging, gagging, bruising, and other cruelties which are well attested.

In view of facts like these, surely we cannot wonder that the friends of humanity should watch with anxiety, and even jealousy, the introduction into this country of a system which is made so oppressive to the laboring classes of England. It is indeed true that in the infant state of our manufactures, and under a government whose very genius fosters the enlightenment of the public mind to every growing abuse, the evils so loudly complained of cannot yet exist in so great a degree as in the old countries. Still there are startling evils already apparent; and should it seem impossible that children can ever be compelled to labor in this manner here, let it be observed that this address mentions many instances in this country, where 13 or 14, and in one instance between 15 and 16 hours of actual labor are already required.

As Mr L. well observes, 'it needs no argument to prove that education *must* be, and *is* almost entirely neglected,' in these cases; and that *such* 'manufacturing establishments are extinguishing the flame of knowledge.' This I conceive to be the most important topic — next to the injury inflicted on the body — to which he has adverted. I know full well that provision is made in some places, as at *Lowell*, for the education of the children even of *manufacturers*; and the facts are highly creditable to the proprietors of the factories, as well as to the friends of education generally, in those places. But this instruction is, after all, confined to a few very early years of life, or as at the Dyottville Glass Works, near Philadelphia, to the evening. At the last mentioned place, 225 boys, some of whom are not more than eight years of age, are required, after the labors of the day are finished, to go to the school room for instruction. If these evening schools do not take up the time necessary for relaxation, they must be useful. But there might be a set hour or two for instruction, during the day. I believe that, generally speaking, a laborer would accomplish as much in 12 hours, if one of them was devoted to study, and another to relaxation of some sort, as if he worked the whole time. But to this rule there *may* be exceptions.

I have inquired of intelligent gentlemen who are familiar with some of our most respectable manufacturing establishments in this country, whether some plan could not be devised — perhaps familiar lectures — for giving laborers of all ages, such daily in-

struction on practical subjects as would be adapted to their means and capacities, and at the same time secure their interest. The reply has always been in the negative; that they were a class of people who could never be brought to desire improvement, or to attend to instruction, even for amusement: that the only way to get along with such ignorant people was to keep them from mischief, by keeping them constantly employed. Now this view, Mr Editor — let who will entertain it — I call *mental tyranny;* the worst, and perhaps the only tyranny from which we have anything to fear in this country. It is the tyranny of those whose ignorance of human nature is more, if possible, to be regretted than the want of scientific or even of moral instruction. Experiment in this country and elsewhere has shown, most conclusively, that no class of men are more capable — few more desirous — of information, if we only adapt our instruction to their condition, than the farmer, the mechanic, and the manufacturer. To them, unless their employments are wholly sedentary, a pleasing book or a familiar lecture is an agreeable amusement; and familiar conversational discussion of topics which they understand, more so.

In proof of this I might refer the readers of the 'Annals' to the statements which you have presented of the Agricultural School at Hofwyl. There, if I mistake not, Fellenberg's experiments have proved most conclusively that those students who engage in active pursuits in the open air during the day, will make very great progress, simply by devoting the evening to their studies. But when the employment in the factory is *sedentary*, the case is altered. Exercise is indispensable — and study at evening would be as injurious as disagreeable.

Do not regard me as an enemy to American manufactures — on the contrary, I hail them as fraught with great blessings to the community, if introduced gradually, and conducted by men of the proper character and spirit. But the greatest blessings are often most open to abuse, and I would gladly point to some of the dangers to which their introduction is exposed, that they may be avoided. Facts not only at Hofwyl, but in this country, show most clearly that with suitable recreation and hours of instruction, farms and shops, and manufacturing establishments need not 'extinguish the flame of knowledge,' but on the contrary, cause it to burn brighter. Were the case of an individual of much consequence, I might say that I seldom, if ever made more progress in knowledge in any *six months* of my life — or *read* more — than when laboring excessively hard on the farm.

When, and how, and where the work of reformation in education shall begin, Mr Luther has not told us so distinctly as President L. But he is supposed to be the acknowledged organ of those who mo-

nopolize the appellation of 'Working Men;' and we know it is customary for the 'party' to speak of colleges as anti-republican — as monopolies of learning — as favorites of the few, to the neglect of the many — as calculated to prepare a few hundred young men to spend their time in patching up the present state of things and lord it over others — as drones in the public hive — if not as vampyres to draw the heart's blood of the public. They maintain that there is no hope for us, but in 'equal universal education;' — and not a few of their number believe that the whole rising generation should be educated — or rather *instructed*, for *education* does not appear to be included in the scheme — at the expense of the State, on the same, or nearly the same system.

To those who entertain this notion of things, I would recommend President Lindsley's arguments; for they appear to me conclusive. Pres. L. is no sectarian — no monopolist — no aristocrat — no anti-republican. He is a warm hearted friend of the people; and would be one of the last persons in these United States to give countenance to any measures which, in his opinion, would interfere with the rights or liberties of his fellow citizens, or diminish their happiness.

To me, it is exceedingly painful to find some of these very individuals who fancy they are the only producing class of citizens, among the most uncharitable and exclusive. All good sense, and patriotism, and philanthropy, and practical knowledge seems to be delegated to them alone; — and yet their motto is, 'All men were created free and equal.' Twentyfive years ago I lived in a part of New England where nothing but spelling, reading and writing were permitted in the public schools, during the day. Once or twice a week, a few of the oldest scholars, collected in the evening to study arithmetic. Ten years afterwards, arithmetic was, after much opposition, admitted; ten years still later, geography, after serious opposition, gained admittance; and quite lately *grammar*. I speak not of a single school only, but of many in the same region. It was no uncommon thing, at the earliest period here mentioned, to hear parents denounce all 'learning,' as they called it, except a little knowledge of reading, spelling and writing, and simple arithmetic, as highly injurious, and calculated to unfit its possessor for practical life. Nay, many went even farther than this, and regarded every person, in proportion as he was liberally educated, with an eye of jealousy, and believed him dangerous in church or state. It is not a little encouraging, however, to find that every successive victory achieved over this ill-founded prejudice, renders future conquests more easy and certain. In the case I have just mentioned, the second new branch which was introduced, met with less opposition than the first — the third than the second, and so on.

Now it is by falling in with these prejudices, unreasonable as they are, that the monopolizing and exclusive tone of the *working men*, as they are called, has become in any measure popular; and it is by *humoring* them, that it must be sustained. It is not long since I heard one of this class say — and he has considerable influence — that he heartily wished every species of schools in the United States, except the common schools, were 'sunk at the bottom of the ocean!'

For my own part I was trained in one of the occupations which this new monopoly view so favorably; viz. that of agriculture. The little instruction I have received, was almost wholly in a *common school.* Nay, I have even been trained to entertain a prejudice against high schools and colleges. My sympathies are with the *common schools* and COMMON PEOPLE, and not at all with high schools or colleges, or the learned professions. Gladly would I do all in my power to elevate the 'people' — nothing to depress them. Yet the observation of facts has convinced me that colleges and professional men are necessary — nay indispensable; — and most so to those who, while they are trained in the moral and intellectual light which they have been instrumental in shedding on their path, are most forward to condemn them. I am unwilling to go even the length of Pres. Lindsley's remarks concerning lawyers; although I admit the truth of his statements in regard to the amount of learned quackery which exists in all the professions. But take these professions as a body — I speak of them now as they have always been found in the *United States,* — and I appeal to history if any body of men of equal numbers, ever proved themselves stronger friends of both the civil and religious liberties and rights of mankind, than they have done since the dawn of the American revolution. On some points, connected with the welfare of the people — such as common education, for example — they may not have been the most *intelligent;* but none have been more *devoted to the public good.*

Nor are these classes entitled to the appellation of *drones,* merely because their labors are not precisely of the *kind* which our new monopolists choose to regard with favor.* We hear of some of

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them, that they labor only a few hours in a day, and perhaps a day or two in a week — and are idle the rest of the time. Now I happen to know that these things are not so; — I mean to any considerable extent. No men as a body wear themselves out faster, in what they regard as the best service they can do for the people, than the majority of the very men who are thus stigmatized. If they misapply their labors let them be informed; and let the world have the benefit of a better influence. If when I earned my bread in the sweat of my face at the plough and spade, I was entitled to the appellation of a working man, I am not less so now that I toil more hours in a day and sweat more profusely at labor, which may be regarded as merely literary.

The question is again and again asked; How do literary men contrive to spend their time? Now he who would *ask* this question would not be likely to be satisfied with the real, unequivocal answer. Tell him that to trace out the origin, and character, and relations of a single word, may sometimes cost a man a day, or a week's labor, and that this labor is all *productive;* — that 'a word may possibly move a continent,' or be the means of 'saving a soul' — and what will he do but stare; unless perhaps he thinks of a straight jacket for you, supposing that 'much learning has made you mad?' Yet the statement would be obviously correct. I am usually deemed a 'practical man,' and yet I do not hesitate boldly and fearlessly to assert that we need *more* than we now have, of these very men who are willing to toil and sweat a day or week at a word, if necessary. It is often such men that are the greatest of benefactors. They raise a standard for the rest of mankind to rally round; they spread the light of human knowledge far and wide for many to walk in, who afterwards forgetfully or ignorantly curse them or their profession for it, when they ought to '*bless.*' We are apt indeed to think these labors *lost*, but it is not so. As well might you suppose the labor of a public prince lost, who in time of a famine, and in pouring out his stores of grain for his subjects to come and gather up, should raise the apex of the pile so high that it could scarcely be reached. Is it not obvious that the higher the centre of the heap, the greater would be its contents, and the greater the circumference of the base for his subjects to surround? A.

And if those who deem the literary man an idler, will not try the experiment sufficiently to know that 'study is the hardest work that is done under the sun,' let them mark the pale, emaciated figure, and the tottering step which it so often produces, and tell us, what bodily labor, without vice, thus wastes the human power? Shame upon those who thus libel themselves and their brethren in mental effort, while they abandon all bodily labor for the 'unproductive' employment of a 'drone!' — EDITOR.

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Art. III. — Obstacles to Improvement in Education.

[For the Annals of Education.]

Mr Editor. — In looking around upon the friends of Education and examining their conduct, and comparing it with what it was two or three years since, it seems to me that there is an evident 'falling off' in ardor and devotion to the great cause in which they had embarked and set sail with a fine breeze, not long since, and had already made considerable progress. This certainly is to be deeply lamented, while there yet remains so 'much land to be possessed.' Let me not, however, be understood to assert that this is *generally* the case. No; far from it is the fact; although in very few, if any cases, has the interest gone on increasing in proportion to the light which is pouring in upon us from the various luminaries which have recently arisen upon our land, with their life-giving rays.

I have noticed among the persons just mentioned, three classes, totally distinct from each other, in their principles of action, and in the causes of their declension.

I. Those who engaged in the work from the mere impulse of the moment, and from the excitement and charm produced by novelty, at the commencement of those exertions in the cause of Education, which have so eminently distinguished the few years just past.

Respecting this class, I shall say but little, for the sooner we discover the *rotten props* of any cause, the better for the success of our undertaking. It is best they should be removed before a great weight rests upon them, as it will occasion far less derangement and trouble. But the other classes consist of different materials — of men with good motives, and devoted to the best interests of society, yet under the influence of mistaken views in relation to this subject. I shall therefore suggest a few thoughts in relation to them. And,

II. Those who suppose the work of reform in education is nearly or quite completed.

To those, who are particularly conversant with our common schools, it may appear strange, that any one should entertain such an opinion. But strange though it be, it is nevertheless true. This sentiment, no doubt, proceeds from ignorance upon the subject, as a few *facts* will show.

The facts I am going to mention, to show something of the state of public opinion, exist in the enlightened state — Connecticut. They would not, I think, apply in so many instances in Massachusetts as in Connecticut, but in some of the states, they would in more.

In one of the oldest towns in the State, lying upon the bank of the noble Connecticut, is a school-house, which I will attempt to describe.. It stands in the centre of the street, (not on a green, but simply in the street, of the same width here, as it is through the town, three or four miles) carriages passing both sides of it as near it as they can without danger of becoming entangled among the boards which once formed a part of the outer covering, as *numbers* of them still adhere *by one end* to the building, and *some*, indeed, still remain fixed in their original place. A great part of them however, by their entire absence from the spot where they were originally fastened, give undoubted evidence that they have performed the useful office of kindling the fire. The house is about 20 feet long, by 16 wide, constructed with *admirable economy*, having no superfluous rooms, appropriated for an entry, place of deposit for wood, scholars' clothes, &c, &c, but the outer and only door opens, into the inner and only room! The wood has the protection provided by nature, viz. the broad canopy of heaven. Being well saturated with water, and covered with ice and snow, it does not afford the opportunity of wasting it, as it cannot be burned in a very rapid manner. Then the clothes can be used for either cushions or mats, as the circumstances or inclinations of the owners prompt them. There are between 80 and 100 scholars to assemble here and spend the day, and it will be at once seen that they could never endure it in so small a room, were it not for the fact I have mentioned, viz. that the covering is in a great measure removed, so that fresh currents of February air flow in from all quarters.

This house was built almost 100 years since. There is not a single shade or tree of any kind near it in the road, although the street in other places is well supplied with them. The soil is quite sandy, and by the help of the carriages is kept soft, through the summer, so that it does not hurt the children to run over it, and besides their clothes soon get so covered, as to almost prevent their wearing out at all. One old man, who was addressed upon the subject of building a new school-house, said, 'the house did very well when I was a boy, and I don't see why it won't now.' Such sentiments prevailed, and they could not build a house. This apathy is not for want of knowledge of the fact that there are better schools and school-houses than theirs; for there has just been an excellent building constructed, in the same town, by individual enterprise, and one which might serve as a model for others; and a school is conducted there in a manner well deserving of imitation. But it is because they do not feel the importance of the subject of education. The importance of mental culture, they never will in any measure see, unless the friends of Education are

constantly engaged in endeavoring to rouse their attention. And let no one think it a *trifling* subject, or fancy that the work is already accomplished. We have but *begun* to move public sentiment; — and if we stop here, we in a short time, lose all we have gained; and the cause of Education goes back, where it was ten years ago. *Onward*, then, should be the motto of every one, who loves his country or his species. We should never, for one moment, be satisfied, until every hamlet in our land — nay, in the *world*, is supplied with a school, and that school is as perfect as human wisdom, care, and labor can make it.

III. I have found a class of men, who are discouraged by the opposition with which they meet, from ignorance and prejudice. Said a distinguished clergyman in a pleasant village in Connecticut, to me, a few days since, 'I think it is as well to *give up* and not try to do anything more. A majority of the people here are opposed to all improvement in schools, and we can do nothing. We have tried refusing to give certificates to teachers, who were not qualified, but the people will employ and pay them, notwithstanding. One teacher was refused a certificate, who had taught fifteen winters. He was miserably ignorant, in short, of *everything*, but the most frequent and thorough manner of applying the birch to his pupils. He thought it hard to be refused, went to another town, passed examination, and went on with his school. The people were dissatisfied that he was turned away — you can't make them understand — it's of no use to try — I must give it up — let them go on as they choose.'

'But,' said I, 'my dear sir, I think you greatly err. This indeed shows the difficulty of our task. It shows the magnitude of our undertaking. It shows that laws are of no avail, further than they are supported by public opinion. It shows us the proper and only field, in which we can exert a favorable and abiding influence. *We must mould and transform public opinion.* This is a slow process, to be sure. It cannot be done in a moment. But place before a community *truth* in its simple, undisguised beauty and force; and it cannot fail to produce its effect in time.

'I think, Sir, you may hope, if you *press on*, striving to improve the taste and habits of your people, to see them, in time, reformed essentially; and you will have their good wishes, attention and coöperation in your schools; and will see them growing in usefulness, and raising up a generation that shall be wiser than their fathers.'

In the same place, I saw a young gentleman, who is a member of a Lyceum, which has been formed and sustained thus far, in the face of great and numerous obstacles, by a few enterprising young men, who have encountered the coldness of some, the opposition

of others, and from others still, they have borne contempt and ridicule. They have gone steadily forward in their work, meeting weekly and hearing a lecture, not from some learned professor, but from one of their own number, together with a discussion upon some subject previously appointed. They have gradually gained growth, their meetings are now very well attended, and a good degree of interest is manifested. 'But,' said he, 'a few individuals have nearly all the work to do — say three or four — and it is quite a task — for we must first accomplish our daily labor, and then prepare for the Lyceum, and preparing so often as we are obliged to do, makes quite a burdensome tax; and indeed, I hardly know how to bear it any longer. If the people will not join us, and bear a part of the burden, (in which case it would be light) we must give up the society, for it is tasking us rather too hard.'

'But my friend,' I observed, 'you know not how much good may be accomplished by these efforts. Go on. Exert yourself to the utmost, if need be; you will, in time, see the effect of your labors. You will train the generation now coming upon the stage, for usefulness. Though you cannot make an alteration in those who have grown old in their bad habits, and have unalterably formed their tastes averse to intellectual pleasures and improvements, still you can mould the minds of those who are yet susceptible of receiving impressions, to something better. You can have the cheering reflection, in the midst of your labors, that you are spending your strength for the good of society; and many lips will yet praise you.

'But my friend, you who make this exertion will receive ample reward in the personal benefit, you will derive from it. This will be to you greater, far greater, than it *can* be to any one else. 'Tis good for the mind to be exerted, even to its utmost stretch. It thus acquires strength and elasticity. Go on then, my friend — shrink not from the burden thus imposed upon you. Press forward. Do good. Get good. Thus your sun of usefulness, and happiness too, shall shine brighter and brighter, until the perfect day. Should you be permitted to live until grey hairs shall cover your head, how sweet will be the reflections, which will fill your mind, as you look around upon the thriving, intelligent and happy youth about you growing up with correct habits, fitting for usefulness and honor in life; and feel that *you* have been the means of directing their minds into the proper channel.'

To me, Mr Editor, it seems that the friends of the human race, and promoters of improved forms of Education, must awake anew to the objects before them, and press forward with more ardor. As I said in the commencement, I do not mean all, but *many*.

I. We must engage in the work from principle.

II. We must not imagine it completed, until the last possible means of Instruction and *Education* are enjoyed throughout the world.

III. We must not be discouraged, let what will oppose.

A Country Teacher.

Art. IV. — Importance of Mental Discipline.

Mr Editor, — In a recent number of the 'Annals of Education' I met with the following language: — 'It has been remarked by some one, that the man who has contrived to make two blades of grass grow where but one grew before, has rendered an important service to his country. A service no less important is rendered by the man who has contrived to save half the time which has been spent in acquiring any branch of useful learning.'

Now, Sir, in my view, these statements may, or may not be correct, according to the meaning of those who make them. Is there no danger of exhausting a soil by excess of heat, and other artificial means of stimulation, so as to render the proprietor, and consequently the country, losers? And may there not be danger too, in hastening by every possible means the development of the mind?

If the writer to whom I have referred, meant to apply his remark exclusively to the subject before him — if he only intended to affirm that he who contrives to save half the time which is now *wasted in learning to read and write the English language*, — then, it may be nearer the truth than if it were intended to be of more extensive application. But if, on the contrary, he means to inculcate the idea that the *shortest* road to any science is, of necessity, the *best*, — an opinion which is becoming quite common — then I must be allowed to dissent; for I believe it to be productive of immense mischief; — and that unless the public mind be speedily set right in this respect, its effect can be none other than to roll back the wheels of improvement.

In the study of the ancient languages and mathematics, every one is ready to admit, at least in *theory*, that there is a twofold object to be attained; viz., the discipline of the *mental faculties*, and the acquisition of *knowledge*; and that the last is by no means the least in point of importance. If a royal road could be discovered to either of these, I do not believe it would generally be followed. There is good sense enough in the community to prevent it.

Again; let the position be taken that the *same* twofold object

ought to be kept in view, in the pursuit of every science, and almost every one will assent to it. He will assent to the proposition in the abstract, I mean — but will he not deny it in practice? Else how does it happen that everywhere *that* teacher, and *those* pupils who make the greatest apparent progress in the mere acquisition of *knowledge*, bear away the palm?

The rapid accumulation of *words*, — of the mere *language* of others, is seen and felt to be injurious. There are not a few, also, who object to a rapid accumulation of the *ideas* of others, if no pains is taken at the same time to secure the *appropriation* of those ideas to the pupil's own mind. As the process of digestion may be retarded by *too great* a supply of food, so they are aware that the process of *mental* digestion is not forwarded merely by loading the mind with a greater supply even of *facts*, than can be *assimilated*, or appropriated to itself.

But who is dissatisfied, if all this *can* be actually accomplished? Who questions the propriety of crowding the *mental stomach* as long as it appears to digest well? Who fears the results of a too rapid mental growth, as he would those of a precocious and unnatural growth of the body?

The *positive* evils of too rapid physical development are usually admitted. The general law that animal bodies which come quickly to maturity, decay with proportional rapidity, is not only taught by philosophers, but sustained by facts, every day elicited. The young Napoleon was said to be the subject of an early decline — in part, at least, from these very causes. In like manner, the *positive* evils, to be apprehended from mental precocity, are admitted by the common remark that, "such a child will be short-lived, because he *knows* so much."

But while these concessions have been made by the common sense of the community, the practical inferences have been generally disregarded. — For if, in the first place, a single mental faculty, — say, *memory* — in early life appears prominent, it receives our particular attention; is carressed and cultivated, whether the rest of the faculties are developed or not. But a *retentive memory* does not, of necessity, presuppose strength or perfection of the other faculties, but rather the contrary. So, in the second place, if a child manifest a disposition to go forward rapidly in a given science — and seems to *understand* his subject, and if he is able to proceed through them *all* at a *rapid rate*, the idea of injury from neglect of a proper *exercise* and *discipline* of the *faculties* by the processes adopted, is by many overlooked. However often they may assent to its importance in theory, they practically despise it in practice, and regard the acquisition of knowledge as *everything*: — the strength and vigor it should give to the faculties, as comparatively, *nothing*.

But if either result could be of importance, independent of the other, it would be the latter. Of what use would be the best chest of mechanics' tools, or the best library, to him who could neither use the one, nor read the other? Of what comparative value would be a mind filled with all 'the knowledge and mysteries' of other men, when it had neither the physical vigor, or mental force, or ingenuity to strike out or originate an idea for itself, or use it with judgment when originated?

This, however, is the *enviable* condition of many a modern student, who has become learned without study, and apparently 'rich' in the intellectual attainments of others; while he is in reality 'poor and wretched,' and without the power of treasuring up anything for those who are to follow him — whose progress has been accelerated at school, by all sorts of labor-saving machinery, but who has never earned his bread, intellectually or physically, 'in the sweat of his face,' according to the divine appointment.

I have no hostility to labor-saving machinery in education, provided it do not exclude hard study and proper mental discipline. But there is much reason to fear that some of the friends of improvement are producing results which themselves would deprecate, could half their evils be presented to their minds.

The public attention is too much directed (I mean *comparatively*), to *simplifying* processes — books — methods — apparatus, &c. Simplicity, in itself, cannot be too much encouraged and cultivated; 'but there is a tendency in the human mind to go to extremes; and in departing from one error, however great, to run into the opposite extreme,' which is often no less dangerous. No simplifying processes, or machinery should ever be substituted for a thorough exercise and discipline of all the faculties of the human mind — attention, comparison, association, &c. AN OBSERVER.

ART. V. — MENTAL PRECOCITY.

[We have given our own views fully on the danger of Mental Precocity. We cannot, in justice to our readers, neglect to place among the Annals of Education the following extracts from an article on this subject in the London Christian Observer; a periodical not less distinguished for its religious, than its intellectual character. We rejoice to meet with such a testimony to the correctness of our own views; — and we hope that in urging the importance of early religious instruction, we may always be understood, in the spirit of this article, not to propose the formation of infant theologians, but of infant christians in temper and conduct; — of the cultivation of the *heart*, and not merely or principally of the head.]

'Once more, my dear friend, I resume my pen to exchange a few cursory thoughts with you: and my theme will be, The tears

of parents over the bier of precocious children. I happened just now to be reminded of it, though I have touched upon it before, by noticing in Mr Byrth's "Observations on the Neglect of Hebrew," a passage quoted by your venerable friend, the Bishop of Salisbury, in his Hebrew Reader, respecting Drusius; who gives us the following account of his son:

'"I had an only and most beloved son, in whom all my hopes were centered, and who was the ornament of my old age. This dear child, to say nothing of his other extraordinary attainments, had made such progress in the oriental languages, that he had not only no superior, but no equal, in all Europe. In his fifth year, he began to learn Hebrew, together with Latin, to which he afterwards added Greek, Chaldee, and Syriac. In his seventh year, he translated the Psalms of David into his native tongue so admirably, that he excited the astonishment of a learned Jew who heard him. In two years after, he read Hebrew without the vowel points; and could explain by his grammatical skill the exact manner in which every word should be pointed, which the most learned modern Jewish Rabbis are unable to do. In his twelfth year, he could write off-hand in prose and rythmical verse, after the Hebrew manner."

'I fear there are parents who would exclaim after reading this passage, "There, my dear child, what would I give if you could do so!" Would you give what Drusius gave, and what every parent of too precocious a child may fear to be called to give — all his future hopes and joys for the gratification of a short-lived vanity? What is the use, says Miss Edgeworth, of being able to say that your son was in joining-hand at seven years of age, if he never wrote any thing worth joining? And so I may add, what is the use of reading Hebrew at five, and surpassing Rabbis at nine, if all this precocious learning leads only to a premature tomb?

'There are few parents who have the courage to view mental precocity in its true character, namely, as a disease. They have no wish that their child's lungs should be preternaturally irritable; or his heart unusually congested; or any other vital organ ominously enlarged; and yet they can behold with complacency, nay delight, a far more tender and important texture than any — the brain — stimulated to unwonted activity, and literally "drinking up the spirit," at the expense of the growth and health of the defrauded limbs and viscera; and with the prospect of an enfeebled existence, and perhaps an untimely grave.

'I have long considered it one of the greatest evils in education, of this artificial age, that we stimulate the minds of children far beyond the utmost verge of salutary excitement. Care, thought, study, are naturally alien to infant years; and can only be superin-

duced upon the tender mind by an exhausting expense of nervous energy, the loss of which is never recovered. I do not of course mean that we are to bring up our children for savages; or to discard both books and houses, like the gipsey tribes that infest our lanes and commons. A child in civilized society must receive, in somewhat early life, the elements of mental as well as moral training; and experience will soon show what portion of this discipline can be safely urged, without enfeebling the powers of life and laying the foundation for future imbecility or premature old age. But I am fully convinced that, in practice, large numbers of anxious and conscientious parents overshoot this boundary; in proof of which, I might point you to the large number of highly intelligent invalid children, who languish in the drawing rooms of the middle and upper classes of society in England. Between forced tasks, stimulating conversation, and still more stimulating reading for recreation, the brain is in a state of constant orgasm, and both body and mind suffer by the process; — the body by feebleness and early decay, and the mind (or rather its corporeal action, for mind itself is immaterial and imperishable,) by relaxing, after the overstrained tension, and disappointing the fond hopes which its early development had awakened. The late Robert Hall was a remarkably precocious child; he could read before he could walk: but do you envy his after existence? He never had a day of ease during his whole life; and even his mind, as if to restore itself after its early and over anxious exercises, took more than one painful interval of absence from thought and all diurnal scenes; much as a person faints away to recover himself after an undue exhaustion of nervous energy.

'The greater part of the useful and active business of life has, in all ages, been transacted by persons who have not in early years evinced more than an average share of intelligence, and who have not been prematurely worn out by early mental excitement. When a poor man has a feeble precocious child, he fears he will become an idiot; and at best he never expects that he will be able to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow; and among savages, such a child would be tossed adrift into the first hallowed stream; but in a higher state and class in society, manual labor not being necessary, the defect is less felt; and provided the chronic invalid can patch himself up by constant care to a reasonable share of mental effort, he may fill passably well, for a time, many of the offices of highly polished society. He cannot walk or run, but he may ride; he cannot endure heat or cold, but he has ample supplies of refrigerants and calorifics; his muscles are unstrung, but his lips may convey his volitions; in a forest with an axe in his hand he would perish, but he can grasp a pen, which in a civilized land is a more

powerful weapon; and if he cannot fell an oak, he can con a brief, or write a prescription, or compose a sermon.

'Mental precocity may take various forms, but in none of them is it a healthy attribute; — no, not even when it assumes the character of religion. I am touching upon tender ground, but I will explain my meaning. The Bible speaks of one who was sanctified from his birth; of another who from a child had known the Holy Scriptures, which were able to make him wise unto salvation; and so in other instances; but in this there was not of necessity any mental precocity. It is not said, that Timothy discussed vowel points, and read half a dozen languages, when his age and health required corporeal exercise and mental quietude. The religion of little children ought eminently to be an affection of the heart; grounded indeed upon scriptural truth, the elements of which are intelligible to a little child, but not ramified into all the doctrinal discussions and mental developments which we survey with wonder in Janeway's Tokens. Some of the children there embalmed might have been quite as pious without being as mentally precocious; and the difference would perhaps, humanly speaking, have been, that their piety would have been spared to the world, and that they would have long "braved the battle and the breeze," before they were sheltered in their haven of rest. I am not speaking of the dispensations of an all wise Providence, or of the mercy which thus early took to rest these lambs of Christ's flock; but I mean to urge the distinction between what was spiritual and what was merely mental; and to show that very early and extraordinary development of the latter kind, even when applied to religious knowledge, is not of necessity so great a blessing as many parents may imagine. Theology, as a science, may be made as great a stimulant to the infant mind as baby novel-reading; and the effect will too likely be that the subsequent relaxation will be in proportion to the undue tension. When I have seen a very little child, racking its brain, as a Sunday's task, to understand the Thirty-nine Articles, I have thought of the death bed of Baxter, and a hundred other eminent theologians, who when reduced to the mental and bodily weakness of second childhood by disease or age, have found that their spiritual food must be that of childhood also; and that some few of the simplest elements in religion were all that they could bend their minds to, and all that they required to sustain their parting souls.

'I know not, my dear friend, that it is necessary for me to make any remark upon Evelyn's narrative, in its bearing upon the particular subject of these cursory reflections — precocity; since your mind will have suggested all, and more than all, that I could offer. I confess, however, that if I had not known beforehand that the

child died in tender years, I should have concluded so before I had read half of the catalogue of his attainments; for as I before remarked, such a premature excitement of brain is in effect a disease, and is scarcely consistent with a due balance and healthy condition of the animal functions. I suspect also from the character given of the child's delicate beauty of person, that he was of that peculiar temperament of body which is connected with a morbid state of the glands; for, as is well known, the early victims of the distressing affections to which I allude, and many of whom die of pulmonary consumption, are often as premature in mind as they are sickly in body; and you are aware that every medical man who has written on disorders of this nature, mentions inordinate mental excitment and bodily inactivity as greatly predisposing to them. If you will turn to the Christian Observer for 1824, p. 682, you will find Sir Astley Cooper saying that the system pursued in modern education, of prematurely urging the mind, and forgetting the frailty of its corporeal tenement, is one chief cause of the prevalence of the painful maladies above referred to. In the case of girls in particular, he says that the overstrained attention and sedentary habits necessary for an early proficiency in what are called accomplishments, are a fruitful source of disease, deformity, and premature decay; more especially where the mind of the child is naturally forward, and the body delicate. "Girls," says Sir Astley, "are frequently compelled to sit from morning till night engaged in learning music, drawing, geography, French, nay, even Italian, and I know not what else, without paying the slightest attention to the preservation of their health, and thus impairing constitutions which might have been rendered strong and robust The mischiefs thus arising from the false system of education at present pursued in this country so frequently come before my notice, that I wish what I have said to be generally known, in order that future misery may be prevented, and the physical education of our youth be better directed I do not exaggerate, when I say that within this last year I have seen five hundred cases of scrofulous affections; never a day passes over my head without my seeing a case, and frequently three or four. This very day I have seen more; and if asked how many boys among them, I should answer not one. And what is the reason? Why, that boys *will* take exercise, and thus are less liable to the complaint; while girls are not allowed, and therefore, if predisposed to it, are almost always attacked by it ... Air, exercise, and nourishment, are the three great points to be kept in view in the treatment of scrofulous affections."

'Sir Astley Cooper here congratulates boys, but what would he have said if he had paid a morning visit to the family of Drusius or of Evelyn, and found a child scarcely out of arms, poring

over a polyglot of oriental languages, and relinquishing his bats and balls for the entertaining subtleties of masoretic punctuation? Evelyn feels great delight that his child was "far from childish:" but why should not a child be childish? There is no wickedness in being childish, any more than in being precose. A child *ought* to be childish; and if he be not, there is a defect either in his character or his education. Our Saviour himself took a child, and set him in the midst of his disciples, and told them that whosoever will obtain the kingdom of heaven must receive it as a little child; alluding, I suppose, chiefly to the simplicity of infancy. Evelyn's child was not altogether simple; there was somewhat of what was artificial, which was not natural to his years, mixed with his lovely character; and so far as this is indicated, it weakens our sympathy. When he asks, "if he might pray with his hands *unjoined*," he is altogether the child, his piety, his reverence for God, his tenderness of conscience, his unwillingness to bear inconvenience or pain where duty requires it, are thus incidentally evinced; while his scruple is so full of sincerity, that we sympathize while we smile at his simplicity. But when he deals in abstract truths, and lays down theological propositions, such as that "all God's children must suffer affliction," and when he "declaims against the vanities of the world before he had seen any," he is no longer a child of five years old, speaking from his own simple feelings; he is either repeating by rote, or he has gained an early maturity of thought and an abstraction which are not natural, and are not of necessity religious. In giving up his own little world for God, in bearing with meekness the afflicting hand of his heavenly Father, in expressing his reverence by wishing to assume the accustomed attitude of infantile devotion; and above all in his simple and affecting prayer, "Sweet Jesus, save me — deliver me — pardon my sins — let thine angels receive me," he evidences an early growth of the *spiritual* affections; but in abstracting all this into theological propositions, he merely shows the prematurity of the *mental* powers, or more probably what he had heard and remembered. "My son, give me thy heart," as distinct from the mere exercise of the understanding, is the command of our heavenly Father; and in the case of little children, and often of older converts, the heart may be far in advance of the intellect.

'I have said thus much lest I should have seemed in my alarms concerning premature mental activity, to be censuring early piety. The two things are wholly distinct; except indeed, as true religion tends eminently to develope the intellect, and to raise it to its highest exaltation. But many children who have been far from showing great cerebral development, have been early sanctified by the grace of God; and, to my mind, such children are a far more

striking illustration of the power of religion, than those infant prodigies whose memoirs are so often held forth to public admiration.

'Yet think not, my dear friend, that I would undervalue that inestimable gift of God — intellect. Every Christian parent would wish to see his children endued with fair, and it may be with bright, abilities; and it is a duty to cultivate them with reasonable assiduity; and, by the blessing of God, no evil, but much good will arise from so doing. But had Richard Evelyn and young Drusius both attained maturity, I greatly doubt, whether at the age of thirty or forty they would have surpassed in intellect and attainments many far less hopeful pupils; but I have no doubt at all but that their energy, both of body and mind, would have been so prematurely wasted, that they would not have performed in the actual business of life, or even of literature, one half of what has been accomplished by thousands of less promising scholars.'

Art. VI. — Education in the East.

Researches of the Rev. E. Smith and Rev. H. G. O. Dwight in Armenia; including a Journey into Asia Minor, and into Georgia and Persia, with a visit to the Nestorian and Chaldean Christians of Oormiah and Salmas. In two volumes. By Eli Smith, *Missionary of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.* Crocker and Brewster. Boston, 1833.

We have examined with deep interest the travels of Messrs Smith and Dwight among the Armenian, Nestorian and Greek Christians, of Western Asia. It is well known that light as well as Christianity was once diffused in these regions. As early as the year 87, the study of history, astronomy, geometry &c., was promoted in Armenia, by the establishment of schools, in which the pupils were taught from books written in Armenian with the Persian or Syracuse character, the Greek character having been suppressed by the civil authority. But in A. D. 406, a learned monk by the name of Mesrób, with great ingenuity invented an Armenian Alphabet; instituted schools in which this alphabet was taught, and learned men were even sent to Constantinople to translate into Armenian the learned works of other nations. These measures gave a new era to the history of Armenian literature, and in A. D. 411, the Bible, and soon after other important works were translated into the Armenian language. But although light and Christianity were thus early disseminated in these regions, — it may not be so well known to our readers that both have almost expired together; that books are nearly as rare, and in many places more so, than in

the days of *manuscripts*, and that education has declined proportionally. The extracts which we shall make from the work before us will illustrate this subject.

On arriving at Constantinople, Messrs Smith and Dwight made it an immediate object to ascertain the condition of the Armenians in that city. They thus describe their reception, and a visit to the Armenian academy.

'We were received by Gregory Peshdemeljân, the principal of the Academy, with a cordiality suited to the account of him, which we had received from Bóghos of Smyrna. He is a layman, well acquainted with the language and literature of his nation, and himself the author of a very respectable grammar and dictionary of the ancient Armenian. We found him surrounded by a company of young men, fifteen or sixteen years of age, possessed of a fair and ingenuous countenance, so peculiar to the young Armenians of Smyrna and Constantinople. They were members of the highest department of the school. The lowest, embraces the children of the poor, who are taught gratuitously to read and write. In the second, are others of more respectable connections, who are studying the same branches. The members of the third, now forty or fifty in number, are introduced to the elements of grammar. That study they complete when advanced to the fourth, under Gregory, the number in which is about the same.

'They were generally possessed of uncommonly interesting countenances, and had an appearance of great neatness and order, as they sat, each upon his cushion or carpet, in double or triple rows around the floors. The whole number of scholars was not far from three hundred. It has a considerable income from a fund, contributed by the same primate who aided so liberally in erecting the buildings of the establishment; and the remainder of its expenses are borne by the Armenian community. — There are schools attached to the other Armenian churches, but none of them are of much repute. We were told also that private schools for girls are not uncommon, but we got admission to none of them.

'It is painful to find that none of the modern improvements in primary education have been introduced, even in this most enlightened part of the Armenian nation. The only thing that shows a tendency that way, is the use of a spelling book, and one or two other first books, in the modern Armenian, their vernacular dialect. Abundantly able helps in grammar, arithmetic, and some other branches have been issued from the press at Venice, as well as here, but they are in the ancient tongue, and accessible only to the few who understand it. Even in Geography, I was surprised to find them so well supplied, that when we mentioned Andover as the place to which we should send a Persian dictionary, which the Patriarch had the politeness to give us, a person immediately referred to a book in ancient Armenian, not only describing its position accurately, but also that of the adjacent towns.

'The Armenians have not only no department for foreign languages in the academy, nor any distinct school for them in the city, but the number acquainted with them is extremely small.'

At Tiflis, in Georgia, they visited a seminary established by Nérses, an archbishop who formerly resided there, and who appears to have paid considerable attention to education. It was originally intended to rank high as a gymnasium, and the building and general arrangements were excellent. The task of procuring instructors was great, but ten or eleven were finally obtained, in part, however, by sending to Paris, Moscow, and Ispahan. But Nérses for some cause unknown to our travellers was afterwards banished, and the school though still in a degree respectable, does not sustain the high reputation to which it had attained while under his direction. It is now a mere grammar school, for teaching Armenian, Russian and French, and is fast dwindling into a common school. None of the modern improvements in Education were ever tried in it, except an ineffectual attempt at the Lancasterian system. In the study of the languages, the New Testament is used as a class book, but not in such a way as to exert any moral or religious influence on the community, nor was this probably intended. The present number of scholars is about 200. The institution has no funds; its expenses are borne by the episcopal see. There is no other Armenian school within the limits of Georgia, with the exception of one containing about 30 scholars at Gánjeh. Compared with the Georgians in general, the Armenians of Tiflis are said to be intelligent, but in reality they have but little education. Their females never have been taught to read, though some of them are taught a little, privately.

There has been for some time a printing press in Tiflis, but it does little, for want of funds. Indeed the only works which have ever been issued from it are an Armenian catechism, published by Nérses — a spelling book — an edition of the Venice Armenian Grammar — and another of the Psalter. No periodical, not even a common newspaper, has ever been attempted.

The intellectual condition and prospects of the *Armenians in general*, are thus described by Mr Smith.

'I shall give here, only so much as will serve to illustrate their intellectual condition, mingling with it the results of our own observations and inquiries, in order to give my remarks a general application to the whole of Armenia which we visited. — At home, very young children here, as in every part of the world, are left almost entirely to the management of their mothers. But unfortunately an Armenian mother has too little education, and holds too low a rank in the family herself, to instruct their minds, or govern their passions, to any good effect. The father is indeed sufficiently absolute in power, but

instead of being led to a steady and firm exercise of it by a wisely directed desire for the good of his child, undisciplined parental affection makes him forget it in injurious indulgence, until it is called forth with altogether disproportioned severity by some sudden fit of anger. The result is, that that invaluable instinct, of which nature has given an Armenian parent his full share, most unhappily directly fosters a rapid growth of evil passions in the child, causes him to become disobedient and vicious, and finally eradicates from his heart all corresponding filial affection.

'As to the instruction in books which is usually obtained in schools, the common people have so little desire to procure it for their offspring, that they are not only not willing to make any sacrifices for it by contributing to bear the necessary expenses, but will hardly bring themselves to exercise sufficient parental authority to induce their children to a punctual attendance at school. Still there is no prejudice against the education of boys: and were schools established gratuitously, they would, like a sick man when medicine is brought to him, take them. After a while, a taste for education would be acquired, and then they would help themselves. The small effects that have resulted from the mere toleration of education by the Russian government, already alluded to, most clearly illustrate and prove, that the Armenians need something more than being negatively left to themselves. Some positive stimulus must rouse them from their lethargy of ignorance.

'The education of girls is not only not desired, but decidedly disliked; and in some places the prejudice against it is strong. Its novelty gives alarm; an ability to read is considered a qualification hardly becoming any but nuns; an immoral tendency is apprehended; and the shocking custom of writing letters to gentlemen is specially dreaded! As might be expected, therefore, the number of females that can read is extremely small. An estimate, founded indeed upon very scanty data, would not make the proportion so great as one in two hundred. We heard of no female school in actual existence throughout the whole of Armenia; and the only one of whose history we learned, was kept about twenty years ago in a nunnery at Akoolis, on the northern bank of the Aras, to the east of Nakhchavén. It contained about sixty pupils. The nunnery has been destroyed, and the scattered nuns no longer teach. Its happy effects, however, are still manifested, by the existence in that vicinity of a decided wish for the education of girls, and a more than usually strong desire for that of boys also. Two or three girls are allowed to read in a boys' school at Gánjeh and at Shámakhy; at Shoosha also the same is tolerated in a school of ten or twelve boys taught by a nun. But farther than this, it is not known that girls are found in any school, either in Russian, Persian, or Turkish Armenia; and there is a decided prejudice against allowing the two sexes to attend together.

'The proportion of males who are able to read is estimated by the missionaries, in the region that has come under their observation, at two in ten for the towns, and two, or at the most three, in a hundred

for the country. The result, also, of inquiries made by ourselves personally in the villages we visited at different points of our journey, and of estimates obtained from individuals respecting many others, presents for the country an average of little more than two per cent! This small number consists generally of the priests, and their assistants, in the church services. Even of them, many are unable to write, and some even to read writing. This estimate is believed to be a very near approximation to the truth; still, perfect accuracy cannot be expected where the premises are so few and the conclusion so extensive.

'It is much easier to count the number of schools, and estimate the means of education which they afford. In Kara-bagh, not including the schools of the mission, which will be mentioned hereafter, there are, in Shoosha itself, one of thirty scholars taught by a vartabéd, and another of ten or twelve taught by a nuh; in the country, a vartabéd who occupies alone the convent of St Hagóp, has long made himself useful by teaching from ten to twenty boys; and some twenty lads from the neighboring villages are also taught at the convent of Datev. Gánjeh has a school of thirty scholars, and Shámakhy another of eighty. There is one likewise in Sheky. Bakoo has none. Nakhcheván is also destitute. But at Eriván there are two, one lately commenced in the town, and another in Ashterág, a neighboring village. It was reported, also that not far from Gümry the people were anxious for a school, and had commenced gathering one. If we add to these the schools already mentioned in Erzroom, Kars, Bayezeed, and Tiflis, the first three of which have in fact been destroyed, and consider that in Persian Armenia, as will hereafter be seen, there are none; we have, at the most, only fourteen native Armenian schools of any kind, in the whole of the region over which our inquiries extended.

'The schools of this and the adjoining provinces, are all taught by men who hold some clerical rank, which in part unites their interest with those of the clergy; being either vartabéds, priests, deacons, or clerks. They are generally men of slight education, and their pupils are taught little else than to read mechanically without understanding, to write, and to perform some simple sums in Arithmetic. In Gánjeh, however, grammar is taught; and through the influence of the mission, it is coming in use elsewhere. The study of it is very important, as affording a key to the ancient language in which their only books of any kind, including the Bible, are written.

'Their school books are the following, and in the following order. For spelling and reading, a spelling book, the first of the nine divisions of the Psalms divided into syllables, a small prayer book, the remainder of the Psalms, the four Gospels, and the church hymn book, are used; and all of them, being in the ancient dialect, are not understood. In Arithmetic, a large and able work has been printed at Venice, but, on account of the difficulty of obtaining, and also of understanding it, as it is in the ancient tongue, no book is used, and the science is taught orally. In grammar a similar diffi-

culty was formerly experienced, as only a few copies of the large one by Chamcheán could be obtained; but recently two others, one by Michael Salamteán of Moscow, and another by the missionaries, have been partially introduced. Should any Armenian student wish to advance farther, (which, however, never happens except with some learned vartabéd in a convent,) he would find in Geography, nothing but a great work in twelve volumes, printed at Venice and exceedingly rare; rhetoric he could learn only from a thick octavo from the same press, filled with the technical terms of the old school of Quinctilian, and which he would hardly be so fortunate as to find; and logic, metaphysics, and moral philosophy, he would have access to, only in a very scarce work of three volumes, also from Venice, and wholly conformed to the Aristotelian school. As to improvements in the system of education, I need only say, that none have been made.'

'The sources of intelligence accessible to the people of Armenia are even more easily summed up than their means of education. Not a newspaper is printed anywhere in the Armenian language; and a mere glance at the location of the different printing presses, already mentioned, will show how few publications of any kind can find their way hither. We have only to add a press at Echmiádzin, which has not been in operation for about twenty years, to the establishments at Venice, Constantinople, Moscow, Astrakhán, and Tiflís, and our list of presses of native origin that can possibly have any bearing upon Armenia is complete. The efficiency even of these most unfortunately diminishes rapidly, in proportion to their nearness to that country; so that the sum of their united influence which actually reaches it, becomes almost imperceptible. A new book in circulation is an extremely rare phenomenon, and to hear one inquired for with interest is still rarer. Little more is accomplished than to supply the churches with the necessary books for public worship. In fact, the prayer book, the hymn book, and the book of martyrology, are almost the only sources of intelligence to be found, and even these, with the exception of the latter, which unfortunately is in a style sufficiently modern to allow its fabulous legends to be understood, are sealed up in a dead language. I wish the sacred scriptures could be added to the list, not only of accessible but intelligible books; but, besides the copies that have been distributed by the missionaries, they are very rarely to be met with out of the churches; even there only the prescribed lessons, can sometimes be found; and in no case are they in the vulgar tongue. None, therefore, can understand them, nor any other books, except those who have studied the ancient dialect; how many such there are, you can judge from what has been already said of the means of education. Preaching, in other countries, such an extremely valuable source of religious information accessible alike to the learned and the unlearned, we can here hardly take into the account. A few family libraries exist, if a collection of sixty or seventy books can be so named; but they are carefully stowed away, and the more valuable works perhaps folded in a covering of two or three handkerchiefs;

so that the owners themselves rarely read them, and access to them by others is extremely difficult.'

As a *specimen* of the great ignorance which prevails in this country, we find the following statement in reference to a country village of 'fifty under-ground houses,' which was visited. It was inhabited wholly by Armenians, who had one church and two priests. Messrs S. & D. had been hospitably received by the kakhia, (lord or governor of the village) ; and were permitted to make such inquiries as they thought proper.

'The kakhia affirmed that no schools existed either here or in any of the surrounding villages ; and declared, as a reason, that no one was qualified to teach, and probably none wish to learn. His own manifest indifference to the subject tended to confirm the latter assertion. He estimated the number in this village who could read at only six.'

The Nestorian Christians, in the province of Oormiah, on the borders of Persia, manifested a greater interest in education, but appeared to be reduced almost to a state of absolute dependence on the moslems. In some of the villages not more than two or three persons were found able to read. In one, which consisted of twentytwo families, there was no kind of school, and only four persons were able to read ; and these all belonged to one family. In another village of 80 houses no school existed. The following extracts will illustrate, more fully, their condition.

'The bishop of Jamálava confessed that none of the Nestorian females are taught letters. "You," said he, "can attend to such things, but we, both men and women, are obliged to labor with all our might to get money for the moslems." A year or two ago, the bishop of Ada said, he procured an instruotor who taught three or four, and they are the only readers in the village. He declared that the Nestorians are extremely fond of learning, but moslem oppression, allows them no time for it, and puts it out of the power of parents to educate their children. The priest had a son, and he had a nephew, he said, whom they wished much to educate ; but it was impossible.'

The following extract, at the same time that it shows in a painful light the moral degradation of the people, proves still more conclusively its causes, and the general darkness which, in this region, hangs over the human intellect.

'I have already mentioned that we found no printed books among the Nestorians, and suggested that their alphabet has perhaps never been printed. We inquired in every place for books, but, with the exception of the grammar at Ardishai, we found only the books of the church ; and they were very scarce. The Psalter, the Gospels, and Epistles, in separate volumes, and divided into lessons for the

daily service, were possessed by every church; but in Jamálava the two latter were carried every night to the house of the bishop, for fear that they would be stolen. Two churches also possessed the Pentateuch; but no entire copy of the Bible was heard of anywhere. Indeed the Chaldean priest at Khósrova confessed that one is hardly to be found.

'Some of their manuscripts were fine specimens of the Estrangelo; especially two, which were copies of the Gospels and Epistles, in the possession of Mar Gabriel of Ardishai. But an extreme unwillingness was universally manifested to part with any, except the Psalter for the alleged reason that only one copy was owned by a village. The missal of the church at Koosy had been recently stolen, and the priest was consequently unable to celebrate the eucharist.'

The Chaldeans, a sect recently separated from the Nestorians, and who are in fact Roman Catholics taken from the earlier churches, have no schools among them.

Such is the state of education among eastern Christians. The following account is given of the Mussulman or Moslem in the same region.

'The moslems not only possess very good natural talents, but are decidedly in advance of the Armenians in their desires and efforts for the education of their children. They have schools occasionally in the villages, and in the towns always. Shoosha has six schools. Even a number of their females, especially the daughters of mollahs, are taught to read, and in Nookha there is the phenomenon of a public school for moslem girls, which is not small. With the exception of the Korán, which is read in Arabic but not understood, all their school books are in Persian; which language they study by means of grammars and dictionaries, not only for objects of business, but that they may read the distinguished poems which it contains. The latter attainment is the highest point at which their education aims. Still, comparatively few of them, and of the nomads very few, are able to read; and no improvement has been attempted or desired in their school books, not even that of having them in the vulgar dialect. Public or private libraries, can hardly be said to exist; though many of the rich begs (or beys) have a number of books in Persian; which they are not remiss in reading.'

INTELLIGENCE.

Schools in Rhode Island.

We received sometime since the 'Report of a Committee on the subject of Schools, with a table showing the number of schools in Rhode Island, the sums expended for their support, and the number of scholars taught in them:' bearing date, May 17th, 1832. We made at the time a few remarks on the general character of the Report, and inserted the table of the number of schools, reserving a more particular consideration for an hour of greater leisure; but without intending to defer it to a period so unreasonably distant.

The Report though brief, presents very important views in education, and contains almost the only authentic means of information as to the state of common schools in that part of the Union. We hasten to condense, into as brief space as we can, its leading facts.

In some of the districts, the school houses were found badly located, with reference to the convenience of the inhabitants. In others, no convenient houses or rooms have ever yet been provided, but the committee cherish a hope that this deficiency will soon be supplied: by what means we are not informed.

They advert to complaints about the deficiencies of teachers; and speak at some length of the 'impropriety of placing any person of *immoral character*, in charge of a school;' the importance of having every teacher possess 'a *good knowledge* of what he attempts to teach to others, as well as judgment and skill in the manner of teaching;' the low 'compensation usually allowed to teachers;' and the difficulty, no less than the importance of securing for the purposes of common school instruction, 'the best talents.' They recommend to public consideration the importance of having institutions for the special preparation of teachers.

It appears that little has hitherto been taught in the schools of Rhode Island but Spelling, Reading, Writing and Arithmetic; although a few schools have paid a slight attention to Grammar and Geography.

But to limit common schools even to thorough instruction in these branches, is thought to be an error. They think 'the standard of our schools should be raised,' and the branches should be extended, so far at least as to embrace all those which are of every day use in life, such as the art of composition, and especially *letter writing*. In this last respect a deplorable deficiency is said to exist: We believe this deficiency is not confined to one state. A *knowledge of accounts*, as well as of the elements of *Astronomy*, *Natural Philosophy*, and *Mechanics*, illustrated by simple *school apparatus*, is also recommended as appropriate to every school room.

Oral instruction, though hitherto much neglected to give place for mere book instruction, is highly commended. It leads children into the habit of thinking and reasoning upon everything they learn.

The views suggested in the Report in regard to discipline are so excellent that we insert them entire.

'There are two extremes into which communities as well as individuals are apt to fall. The one is a hasty adoption of every new thing which happens to be cried up as an improvement: the other is a pertinacious adherence to old established customs and usages, however obvious their inconvenience or their defects. To these extremes, schools for elemen-

tary education have been peculiarly subject. While in some of them, no one system has been pursued long enough to test its utility or unfitness, in others it has been deemed almost sacrilegious to depart a single step from the ancient mode of instruction and government. Either of these extremes is unspeakably injurious to the cause of education. That great improvements have been made both in the means and method of imparting instruction to youth, it is believed none who have been at all conversant with the subject will deny; but in many places, a rooted attachment to established rules and preconceived notions, has prevented the benefits which might have resulted from the adoption of these improvements. Why is it, we would ask, that so many teachers have failed in their attempts to communicate instruction to the youthful mind? Why have so many parents and patrons of schools so much cause to lament the ill success of their exertions in endeavoring to promote the education of their children? Your committee think it has been owing in a great measure, to mistaken views on the subject. We think there has been a mistake both in the theory and practice of teaching. Instead of considering and treating children as rational beings, strongly actuated by the passions of shame, of pride, of emulation, of hope and despair; instead of reflecting that they possess a mind in embryo, susceptible of deep and lasting impressions made upon it through the medium of the above named passions, we very much fear they are too often considered and treated as beings entirely passive.

'The passion of *fear* is one which children manifest earlier and more distinctly than any other. This has been seized upon as we think injudiciously by some teachers as if it were the only avenue by which approaches could be made to the understanding of the child. Acting upon this principle, it is easy to see what must be the course of discipline and instruction. The teacher at once arrays himself in terror, and the whole business of teaching and governing must be a *system of coercion*. Our opinion is, that where this system is pursued, there is great danger of creating in the pupils a morbid sensibility, a stubbornness of temper, a hatred of the school and whatever is connected with it. It operates as a check upon all the better feelings of the scholar, and it will be a fortunate circumstance if it does not create a hardened indifference to improvement of every kind. As a *system* of government it is decidedly objectionable, and we think if it must be used, it should be used only as a *last resort*.

'We have no hesitation in stating what we consider one of the greatest faults in teaching, and the one from which almost all others spring: it is a *departure from nature*. If parents and teachers, in their attempts to communicate knowledge to the youthful mind, and to train up children to usefulness and respectability in life, would adhere closely to the principles followed by the experienced farmer and the skilful horticulturist in rearing their grain, their plants, and their trees, they could scarcely fail of success. An obvious departure from these principles is the practice too common both with parents and teachers of crowding the memory of children with a mass of unintelligible matter, answering no other purpose than to display the wonderful memory of the wonderful child, while every other faculty of the mind is left uncultivated and unfostered.'

We have another evidence that the work of improvement in education is not wholly forgotten in Rhode Island. The Providence Gazette thus speaks of an institution lately established in that State under the name of '*The Rhode Island Manual Labor School*:'

'This school has commenced under very favorable circumstances. Fifty scholars entered on the day of its commencement, and the school bids

fair to be full in the course of the week. The hours of study commence in the morning at 5 o'clock, and continue till 6 o'clock; commence again at 9, and continue till 12: commence again at half past *one*, and continue till 3. Hours of labor, from 3 to 6 in the afternoon.'

Instruction of Adult Colored Persons.

About the end of September last, by the exertions of an association of the Friends in Philadelphia, a School for Adult Colored Persons, (males) was opened in that city, and continued during the winter. It was under the care of two teachers, in two separate divisions. These teachers were severally assisted in their labors, by the members of the Association in rotation, one or more of whom usually, attended each meeting for instruction. These meetings were held in the evening.

The number of persons who attended exceeded one hundred; but as the measure was new, and accompanied with many difficulties, and the season very inclement, their attendance was in many instances very irregular. Still much good was evidently accomplished; and not a few made considerable progress in orthography, reading, writing and arithmetic. The scriptures, though not the only book used, were much read by the classes, and the practice of closing the evening by reading a chapter, was regularly supported.

A School for Females, of the same class of persons, was also kept up during the winter, in two divisions; and the whole number who entered their names in these female schools during the term, was two hundred and thirty-nine, but the attendance of many was irregular.

We derive the foregoing interesting facts from a Report of the Executive Committee of the Association who founded these schools, as published in the 'Friend' of April 20th. It must give the reader much pleasure to find the humane and enlightened citizens of Philadelphia ever on the alert to devise some new scheme of benevolence, or new form of bestowing charity. Here were from three to four hundred persons collected, enlightened, and brought under the happy influence of kind and generous feelings. That coming together, as many of them did, after the fatigue of a hard day's labor, — perhaps in the cold or wet, — they should not have made the *highest* degree of intellectual progress is not to be wondered at. But even in this respect, the results have been highly gratifying; and we are happy to learn that the Committee are determined to open their schools again in the autumn.

New-York Society for the Promotion of Knowledge and Industry.

The design of this Society, as stated by the Board of Managers, is to promote the intellectual, moral, and physical condition of the poor. Its primary and specific objects will be to extend the advantages of education to the children of the indigent — to discourage their employment in hawking, peddling, street begging, and pilfering — to establish the necessary schools for the instruction of adults — to abolish indiscriminate almsgiving — to visit the poor at their habitations — to give them counsel — to aid them in obtaining employment — to inspire them with self-respect — to inculcate habits of economy, industry, and temperance; and, when it shall be absolutely necessary, to provide, through the aid of private individuals, and of the public authorities, relief for their necessities.

Surely here is a field of labor wide enough to give scope to the most enlarged philanthropy. This will be obvious if we only consider the fact,

that there are from ten to thirteen thousand children in the city, within the proper ages for instruction, who do not attend school. One prominent and important department of labor for the Society, will be the establishment, in some form or other, of schools for adults.

The Society is to be under the management of a Board of Managers, elected annually by the Ward Associations. Its foundations are laid in the broadest and most liberal principles, and it solicits the countenance and support of men of every sect, of every party, and of those who belong to none.

State of Instruction in Springfield.

The population of this town in 1830, was 6,784. Their appropriations for the support of common schools, for the year 1833, were $3,500; besides $600 for a high school. This must be about $2 00 to a scholar.

These facts would indicate a respectable attention to common education in that flourishing portion of the Commonwealth. But we are not left to make our inferences from these facts alone. From the Report of the School Committee, at their last annual meeting, we find, that during the continuance of the winter schools, there existed an Association of Teachers for mutual improvement, which met regularly every other Saturday afternoon, to compare the results of their experience, and their respective views in regard to the best modes of managing and instructing schools; and to discuss, fully and freely, important topics relating to the subject of education. At the recommendation of the Committee, they visited each other's schools frequently. The town also made liberal appropriations to furnish them with books, and periodical works on education. All these means are represented as having been exceedingly favorable to improvement.

South Hanover College.

This is a Manual Labor School, where the industrious student may defray, by his own hands, the expenses of his education. It comprises a Literary and Theological Department, in which all the ordinary branches of language, science and divinity are taught. It numbers at this time a President and five Professors, and ninety-five Students. In 1827, this institution commenced its operations in a log cabin, 16 by 18 feet, with six students under the care of Rev. John F. Crow, who is properly the originator of the whole plan. It now has several buildings for accommodating students, the largest, 40 by 100 feet, and three stories high, with a good farm and suitable workshops. — *Ohio Standard.*

Public Instruction in France.

The minister of public instruction in France has addressed circulars to the rectors, &c. for the establishment of schools for primary teachers. Within two years, this important class of schools, — in which we are so deficient in the United States, — has increased in number from 30 to 47. What might one such school accomplish in each of our new States.

Much interest is shown in France, especially in certain departments, in the establishment of schools. The whole number of schools in the kingdom, in 1832, was 4,055, with 231,365 scholars; a greater number of scholars than in 1829. Schools have been established, where there were none in 1829, in 2,741 communes, (or townships.) The schools of mutual instruction have increased 536, and the normal schools 34.

Schools and courses of instruction for the adults and laborers of Paris, —

founded by individuals and societies, — are encouraged by the minister of public instruction, unless they have a political bearing. — *N. York Adv.*

Infant Asylums.

It is deserving of attention, that, independently of schools for the elementary instruction of children above the age of six, in the Duchy of Saxe Weimar, every village contains a District asylum for the reception of children below that age, who have hitherto been left without any superintendence at home, whilst their parents were absent at their work. This abandonment has been, and notoriously is, the prolific source of idle and vagabond habits, which it is extremely difficult to eradicate in after years. The asylums in question have therefore been open for the purpose of remedying this crying evil; the parents send their children to them in the morning, and fetch them home in the evening. In the interim they are fed and taken care of, besides being taught to read and say their prayers. There is not a single village in the whole Grand-duchy, which is not provided with one of these excellent "Asylum Schools," as they are termed; and they are rapidly spreading all over Germany. — *Quarterly Journal of Education.*

Infant Schools in New-York.

The first Infant School was established in New York, in May 1827, and the experience of six years has placed beyond dispute the practicability of instructing infants, not only in the branches of primary education, but in the principles of morals and religion.

There are now, in this city, sixteen schools, wherein 2,370 infant children receive instruction, — 1,400 in the charity schools, and 970 in those attached to the Public Schools. There are also eleven private schools, conducted upon the infant plan, comprising about 490 children. There are still 6000 children, under four years of age, who are not embraced in any of the schools.

Instruction of the Penobscot Indians.

The remains of the Penobscot tribe of Indians reside on the Penobscot river, a little above Bangor, in Maine.

Schools have been occasionally established among them. In 1828, a Catholic priest, who has great influence over their character and conduct, established a school among them, whose results ought to be preserved on record. He had 80 or 90 pupils, who were of both sexes and of all 'sorts and sizes.' The school continued only about three months; but the progress of the pupils was very considerable in spelling, reading, and writing. Vocal and instrumental music were also taught them. In the former, the whole of them were instructed, and with success. A visiter who attended the exhibition at the close of the term, represents some of the female voices as among the best he ever heard.

Their instrumental music was performed with instruments fabricated with their own hands, and consisted of a drum, a clarionet, and a fiddle; and though these instruments were roughly made, and the style of the music was peculiar to themselves, it was enough to indicate a musical taste, and to command, as it was said, universal applause.

One of the pupils of this school, by the name of Paul Joseph Osson, had distinguished himself by unusual intelligence and proficiency. After leaving the school, he returned, for a year or two, to his Indian habits and manners. But at the end of this time, being on a visit to Bangor, he happened to fix his eye upon some engravings in the shops, which made a very

strong impression upon his mind. The bent of his mind attracted notice, and he was taken to the room of a painter, and shown a considerable collection of portraits and other paintings. From that time, painting seemed to take possession of his whole soul. He employed himself continually in sketching figures upon wood and bark. The priest, before mentioned, encouraged and assisted him; and he commenced drawing and painting flowers, animals, miniature likenesses of his fellow Indians, and landscapes of considerable compass. Several of these were so handsomely executed, and he made such improvement that the painter before mentioned consented to take him under his tuition. His progress in the art is said to be respectable.

It should be observed that he was always distinguished among his fellow youth from early age. It is related that a lady who was some years since visiting Oldtown, the Indian village, was so struck with the fine figure and face of one of the Indian boys, that she sketched an outline of him on the spot. This made a strong impression on the boy, and on the tribe generally; and it is strongly suspected, though the fact is not certainly known, that Osson was the very boy alluded to; and that this was the first spark of excitement which kindled his infant genius.

Indian Schools in Canada.

Several British gentlemen have been very active in establishing schools among the Indians on Red River, in Upper Canada.

One of the teachers, a Mr. Smith, has under his care, 17 boys and 6 girls, from different tribes. The boys labor on a farm part of the time. They work cheerfully, and many of them are represented as being regular and cleanly in their habits and appearance. Their progress is encouraging, and they are not more inclined to vice than boys in general of their age.

There is also a school of industry established, embracing 46 scholars. They are, to a very considerable extent, employed in spinning. The school is gradually increasing. They have, also, Sunday schools, but these are not represented as very flourishing.

School for Females of Color.

A boarding school, for females of color, has been opened in Canterbury, Conn., by Miss Crandall, an enthusiastic friend of our colored population, and of the immediate emancipation of the slaves. Instruction is given in all the branches usually taught in schools of this character. Much opposition has been experienced,—the result of which will be, as commonly happens in such cases, only to bring the institution the more into notice.

American Lyceum.

The Third Annual Meeting of the American Lyceum, took place on the 3d of May, at the room of the Board of Aldermen, in the New York City Hall. The number and respectability of the members, and the importance of the subjects brought up, rendered the meeting very interesting and satisfactory to visiters from a great distance. We are not able to obtain the Reports of the proceedings in time for our present number, but hope to publish them in the course of the month. One measure which deserves immediate publicity is the offer of a premium of $300 for the best text book on Physiology, for the use of schools. President Duer, of Columbia College, who presided at the meeting, was appointed President for the ensuing year.

NOTICES.

Practical Lectures on Parental Responsibility, and the Religious Education of Children. By S. R. Hall. Boston, Pierce & Parker. 1833. 12mo. pp. 176.

This series of Lectures was obviously much needed. Like the other works of the same popular writer, they appear in a plain, practical style, and we hope will meet the eye — we were going to say reach the heart — of every American parent. For, if there be such a thing as human responsibility; if the word itself be not an unmeaning term; then the duties which the parental relation involves, and which are here so earnestly and feelingly urged, — the governing and instructing of children 'in the spirit of the BIBLE,' and on the 'principles of COMMON SENSE' — cannot be too often or too generally urged.

We are glad to see the friends of education take such a stand as this; and we trust the time is not far distant when the charge, which has been so often and so justly brought against many modern educators, will be no longer preferred: — we mean that of fostering, by their efforts, mere intellect; and thus lending their influence in wielding that tremendous power with which civilization furnishes us, only to render man the more a 'monster' in the result.

The Child's Friend, or Things which every Boy can do. By S. R. Hall. No. 1. Boston, Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. pp. 132.

The character of the Child's Friend is somewhat peculiar. It comprises a daily lesson, or 'something which every boy can do,' for each day of the week during a period of six months. At the end of this period, Part II, embracing another period of six months, is to be furnished.

A part of the lessons embrace exercises in some branch of science, especially Natural History. Others consist merely of important general truths, with illustrations. As an example of the latter, the lesson for the fifth day (Friday) of the first week is, 'Boys *can* always speak truth, because it is EASIER to tell the truth, than to INVENT a lie.' Then follows the well-known, but never tiresome story of George Washington's regard to truth, as an illustration. But the stories used as illustrations are generally, we believe, original.

The Child's Friend cannot fail, we think, to instruct, as well as amuse; and improve, as well as instruct. Its leading object appears to be to throw the child upon his own mental resources; and, so far as may be practicable, make him his own teacher. If the work, having fewer engravings than accords with the fashion of the day, should *amuse* less than some highly popular productions, we believe it is inferior to none in the uniform accuracy which unwearied care and patience have bestowed upon its statements.

The District School as it Was. By One who Went to it. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 156.

This work, for one class of readers, is as excellent in design as in the manner of its execution; and we rejoice to see it issue from the press. It is an attempt to burlesque some of those usages against which better weapons have been directed for some time, in vain. Sure we are, that no fictitious production of the present day is more obviously calculated to be useful. There are few persons of middle age among us who cannot bear testimony to the faithfulness with which many of the scenes are delineated. They are scenes, however, which we hope are fast passing away.

A Treatise on the Elements of Algebra. By the Rev. B. BRIDGE, B. D., F. R. S. &c, &c. First American, Revised and Corrected from the sixth London Edition. Philadelphia: Key, Mielke & Biddle, 1832. 12mo. pp. 199.

From a hasty examination of this treatise, we have formed a favorable opinion of its general character. We think such a work was much wanted, and is calculated to be extensively useful.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

JULY, 1833.

Art. I. — Institution at Steten, in Wurtemberg.

We were deeply interested during our visit to Wurtemberg in the views and plans of Prof. Klump, of the Gymnasium at Stuttgard. We brought with us a work in which he has detailed them, with a view to its translation; and it is with deep regret that we have found ourselves obliged to leave it thus far untouched. We are gratified in being able to present our readers with an account of an institution founded upon these principles, in the kingdom of Wurtemberg, for which we are indebted to the Sunday School Journal.*

The origin of this institution must be ascribed to the agency of two individuals, although its necessity had long been felt by the community at large. A Mr Wiedersheim, steward of his majesty's summer palace at Steten, and pastor Kleiber, were the gentlemen, who, for the sake of their own children, wished to see the two great ends of moral and intellectual education combined in the most effective manner, and ardently desired that the state of instruction might be altered and extended according to the natural development of the human mind. Similar wishes had been expressed by others, who were competent to judge on this important matter. The best publication of all that appeared on this subject, is Professor Klump's essay, published at Stuttgard in 1829. The above named gentlemen applied immediately to the author, that by his advice they might be assisted in putting their plan into execution. Their wishes were made

* Description of an institution lately founded in the kingdom of Wurtemberg. Translated from the German for the Sunday School Journal. Vol. iii, p. 54.

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The two principal departments are,

1. The general preparatory establishment.

2. The higher course, in which the different branches are taught in such a manner as to prepare the scholars practically for their respective destinations.

The general preparatory school is again divided into two subdivisions.

a. The elementary course (from 6 to 10 years.)

b. The course of languages, i. e. study of the foreign languages, (ancient and modern,) from ten to fourteen years.

The different branches of instruction will now be enumerated, as they follow each other in the principal divisions mentioned above, in accordance with the gradual development of the scholars.

The first elementary instruction is founded on intuition, this being the basis of all human knowledge.

a. Intuition of forms and numbers.

(Having completed the first general course of intuition;)

Natural history, with particular reference to botany.

The doctrines of number, geometry.

Geography, founded on intuition.

Instruction in language; with the instruction in the native language, exercises of the mental faculties are connected, (elementary logic.)

c. Religious instruction founded on biblical history.

d. Reading, writing, drawing, singing.

In the second subdivision of the preparatory school, (at the close of the tenth year) the foreign languages are taught, and first the Latin, on account of its systematic structure as well as its practical importance, both for candidates for professions and to other scholars, inasmuch as a knowledge of the Latin language, this being the parent of the French, Italian and English, will greatly facilitate the subsequent acquisition of those languages.

The course of languages, then, is to occupy principally the time and strength of the scholar, until the 18th year of his age, without neglecting at the same time the regard due to the other branches.

The course of instruction embraces,

a. Religion.

b. Languages, Latin, French, German, and Greek.

For the foreign languages, the method of interlinear translations will be adopted, since experience has proved that its perfect adaptation to the human mind enables the scholar to advance more rapidly.

c. Arithmetic, geometry, natural history (to the 12th year,) the elements of the natural sciences, (from the 12th to the 14th;) geography and history (during the 4 years.)

d. Writing, drawing, and singing, also music, if required.

The higher course is divided into two sections; in the one, those who are destined for professional pursuits are introduced to the Greek and Latin languages; And in laying thus the first foundation to a classical education, particular attention is paid to the influence which a perusal of the ancients must necessarily produce on the mind and

the heart. Those, however, whose life is to receive a practical tendency, are principally occupied with mathematics and natural philosophy. Here, however, it is necessary to remark, that in both sections it will be considered of paramount importance to enlarge the field of knowledge as much as possible. Both sections, then, are engaged in the same branches, but in each the recitations enumerated above must be particularly attended to during the hours of private application, this being a very important subject at this age.

The instruction embraces,

The Latin, Greek, French, and German languages and literatures, exercises in elocution and composition, principally in the mother-tongue, besides English and Italian, introduction into mental philosophy by the means of anthropology, logic and law of nature; a knowledge of the constitution and laws of the country, particularly designed for those who will not enjoy the advantage of hearing a course of lectures on these subjects in the university; instructions in religion, doctrines of faith and ethics, history of religion.

Algebra, trigonometry, and practical geometry, together with topographical and architectural drawing, technology, natural history, physiology, chemistry, history, universal geography, maps, together with statistics;

Drawing, singing, and piano-forte.

If compared to public institutions, this circumstance may be considered peculiarly advantageous, that the number of scholars with whom one teacher is engaged at once will usually not exceed from 10 to 15, which must necessarily influence the manner of instruction as well as the general state of morals.

EDUCATION.

This institution is intended to form the heart as well as to cultivate the mind.

1. Intellectual, chiefly moral and religious discipline of the pupils.

The pupils shall not only be impressed with the spirit of Christianity during the time of public instruction, but this spirit shall pervade their whole education.

Common morning and evening devotions, prayer before and after the meals, under the superintendence and with the participation of teachers, regular attendance upon divine worship, partly in the parish church, with the congregation, partly by themselves, in the college chapel, connected with catechizing, celebration of particular festivals, that of the foundation of the institution, &c.

The general principles of morality and religion shall be practically applied in treating the scholars with seriousness and kindness, particularly whenever they have committed some offence. For this reason, corporeal punishment will only be applied when all other means have been used in vain, with scholars of from six to fourteen years; no distribution of premiums, and but little regard will be paid to the plan of acknowledging the merit of scholars by particular places.

Teachers and pupils take their meals at the same table. Next to the

bedroom of the scholars is that of the teachers; also during the hours of recreation this connection is not interrupted, although particular care is taken that the control may not degenerate into an undue and oppressive influence. They are drawn into the family circles of the trustees and teachers, and in fact form with them but one great family.

It is hardly necessary to state, that the younger pupils, those between six and eight years, shall be treated with particular care and attention, and shall be placed, so far as this may be deemed necessary, under female protection.

2. *Bodily culture* is calculated to preserve and invigorate health, strength and agility, and also to confirm the moral powers of the boy and the youth.

a. General culture. This institution provides the pupils with breakfast, dinner, and supper; the provisions are simple, suitable to the health and the wants of the pupils. Female servants (advanced in age, and placed under the direction of the female members of the families of the trustees) take care that the pupils of from six to fourteen years of age are kept cleanly, regularly provided with clothing, and they are also to assist the more advanced pupils as far as necessary, and to arrange this part of the domestic affairs.

Patients shall be attended by physicians in the most conscientious manner; particular rooms, diet, and every other requisite shall be attended to.

The necessary expenses which must be incurred on such occasions are to be charged extra.

PARTICULAR EXERCISES OF THE BODY.

For this the large and beautiful garden and the extensive yard offer a good opportunity. Little excursions are made together with the teachers; and various diversions are arranged, among which gymnastics occupy a conspicuous place, and by fixing certain hours every day for this purpose, these exercises are placed in the same rank with all the other lessons.

VACATION.

From external and internal causes, it has been thought most proper to fix one great vacation. At Easter, therefore, no more than eight or ten days are allowed, and for the great vacation the whole of the month of September has been selected, because this is generally the most beautiful month of autumn, and the vacation occurs thus almost at the same time with those in the public schools.

QUALIFICATIONS FOR ADMISSION.

To apply fully and thoroughly the principles of education and instruction which have been laid down in this institution, it will be very desirable to retain the pupils during the whole course, and to have them enter at the sixth year of their age.

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Arrangements have been made, however, that whenever parents

do not wish to dismiss them at so early a period from their homes, their children can be entered in the seventh or eighth year.

We learn from the conclusion of this pamphlet, that the institution was opened on the 3d of May, and that before this time the number of applications amounted to fifty, but only thirty pupils were received. In addition to the necessary teachers for all the branches of knowledge, one is engaged who is exclusively devoted to children from six to eight years of age, in order that parents may be induced to send their children as early as possible; and the female members of the establishment are particularly instructed to attend to their cleanliness and bodily health. In accordance with the sound maxim, so much neglected, that 'prevention is better than cure,' a physician is engaged to visit the establishment every day. Thus instead of being called first to visit a patient in the paroxysm of disease, he has an opportunity of learning his constitution while he is in health, of observing and obviating the causes which may impair or derange it, and of marking and counteracting tendencies to illness.

The institution was opened, as was proposed, on the 3d of May, in the royal palace at Steten. The pupils went with their teachers to an adjoining church, where more than 500 persons awaited them. The ceremonies were begun by singing a beautiful hymn, followed by an address by the Rev. Dr Klaiber, in which he brings forward the plan of education already described. He assured the parents that their children are to receive bodily and mental culture of the best kind, and that to this will be added that moral cultivation, without which the rest is but of little value. At the conclusion of this address, the principals and teachers came forward and pledged themselves to each other and the parents, to devote themselves to this great object. A prayer and hymn concluded the celebration, the procession returned to the palace, and parents, teachers, and children sat down to dine. After dinner they assembled in one of the saloons of the palace, when an address was delivered by Professor Klump, to the assembled parents, of which the following is an extract.

'We can only hope to realize your expectations, if you will continue to unite your activity with ours.

'The first condition, of course, is a minute description of the intellectual and moral state of the scholar, for by this information the teacher will be enabled to treat his new disciple in the proper manner.

'On this remark we base the request that you will furnish us by letter with a faithful delineation of the bodily, mental, and moral development of your children.

'We promise in return to communicate to you at certain periods, and, if necessary, more frequently, whatever may be of interest to you, in relation to your children, that we may rejoice together, if their conduct enables us to give a favorable account; and that we may confer with each

other on the best means of reclaiming them, if they should have strayed from the path to perfection. Should we ever be doomed to meet with a child physically or morally depraved in a degree which might threaten peril to his companions, we also promise in this case to do our duty, however painful it may be, and to send the child back to his parents.

'This mutual candor, then, must be extended to all the different relations in which we will be placed in future. We shall consider it our duty to listen to all the just demands of the parents, so long as they do not interfere with the general and individual prosperity. But we expect also to be entrusted with unlimited power in our immediate influence upon the scholars. In this case only we shall be enabled to act regularly and energetically, and may feel assured of ultimate success.

'However, it may not be sufficient to grant this privilege by a silent concurrence. We request you to be active in promoting all the measures of the institution, whether the physical, intellectual, or moral condition of these children may be concerned. The more distinctly the confidence and the coöperation of the parents is expressed, in the same measure the confidence in their teachers will increase. To induce you to grant our request the more readily, we hardly need remind you that the motives which called this institution into existence are pure, and independent of every kind of gain; that its operations are not withdrawn from the inspection and the judgment of public opinion; that impartial treatment is one of its first laws; and that *the spirit of love* which is to animate all our exertions, never ceases to influence the principles and the opinions of the teachers.

'After having asked you now to be candid with us in all your communications, to confide in us, to intrust us with the necessary power, and to join in our activity, it may be thought necessary to give some minute details respecting our own labors.

'The aim we have in view has been held forth to you in the address of my colleague, — the harmonious development of the whole man, physical, intellectual, and moral.

'Until the fourteenth year, it was said, the instruction of the pupil shall not be influenced by definite views to any particular avocation. He shall only attend to such studies as at the fourteenth year will enable him to make a free choice.

'Yet, if moral culture is to be estimated higher than all knowledge, the question naturally suggests itself, what our institution has done in this respect.

'It cannot afford that domestic life in which the mind of the child is developed most beautifully. The influence of the paternal home cannot be supplanted by any other, even the most favorable relations. But if love is the productive power which pervades and animates the universe, which beams in its highest perfection in the religion of Christ, and which calls forth everywhere the seeds of success, in that case we do not hesitate to promise this love. The teachers will meet their pupils in love; paternal love shall be the foundation of all their principles of education; and even if they should be compelled to punish, in the very punishment that conciliating spirit will be felt which punishes because it loves.

'As this is the aim of our scientific and moral culture, it is not our intention to make a display of the results we may be happy enough to produce, and least of all, at a very early period of our activity. The slower good fruit ripens in the rays of the sun, the more juicy will it become. We thought this remark peculiarly appropriate at a time when it has become customary to place the young plants in hot houses in order to obtain

fruit in the shortest possible time. But that method breaks their strength at an early period. From this reason it will be considered the more important that the institution may be entrusted with the *whole* culture of the pupil, that they may be sent at a tender age, because the efforts of the instructors are impeded in the most distressing manner when they receive pupils at a more advanced age, and after they have frequented several other schools.

'Since this institution is the only private undertaking in this kingdom, it may be proper to say a few words of its relations to the public schools. We indulge the hope that we shall have no reason to shrink from a comparison; but we are far from opposing them. We do not profess to have invented something new and original. We are only resolved to follow the course of nature, which leads always surest; we intend only to apply that which many profound instructors have not hesitated to approve. We do not hesitate, then, to appropriate to ourselves what Pestalozzi, the people's friend, said in his first publication; "We will have no share in the dispute on opinions, but whatever is conducive to make man pious and good, whatever nourishes the love of God and of their neighbors in their hearts, whatever may fill their houses with happiness and plenty, that we think is beyond the reach of dispute, and is to engage our undivided attention."

'And to accomplish this, may He assist us whose protection alone can make us prosper, so that at some future period, when the great hour has arrived, we may be able to exclaim, "Lord, here are we, and those whom thou hast confided to us."'

This address was followed by a conversation between the parents and teachers on the subject of economical arrangements, and in an address to the king they expressed their gratitude for his aid, and received the assurances of his good will. This interesting meeting was not closed till evening, when the whole company, 140 in number, supped together.

Art. II. — Infant Schools.

1. *Report of the Boston Infant School Society, by the Committee of Arrangements.*
2. *Fifth Annual Report of the Infant School Society of the City of Boston. Instituted April 8th,* 1828.

Communities, like individuals, have their 'hobbies.' Among those which have been special favorites during the last ten years, are Infant Schools.

When Infant Schools were first introduced into the United States, the friends of education, everywhere, were enthusiastic in their favor. Almost without knowing what they were, they patronized them; and nearly every large town, and not a few small ones had an Infant School. Within two years we hear comparatively little

said about them. What is the difficulty? Has there been a failure? Or is there some other cause of the general silence on the subject?

1. They were, at first, misemployed. They were made the instruments of filling the mind with the words and thoughts of others. Former systems of education had made older children 'parrots;' now, by the new discovery, and by its application, children of two years old might attain to the same dignity — and not only be rendered parrots, but very learned ones. We mean, in short, that as a general rule, (to which there were doubtless exceptions) Infant Schools were made, at best, mere pieces of machinery for developing the intellect — and often for cultivating only one or two of its faculties. The consequence was, that though the child appeared at first to make very great progress, this progress was not always permanent. No special attention was paid to the improvement of the physical frame, and little to the cultivation of the affections.

2. They were in some instances supposed to be perverted. Instead of being regarded as *nurseries* for forming the body for health, the mind for intelligence, and the whole body for happiness — and instead of being conducted simply on Bible principles, they were supposed by some to be used for sectarian purposes. So far as this impression prevailed, it had an injurious influence.

3. The purpose — we mean the legitimate purpose of these schools — is just beginning to be understood. Paradoxical as it may seem, we believe this is one prominent reason why so little is now said about them. Their friends — their real friends — have found out that a wise Providence never designed them as a grand piece of machinery for making prodigies in mere intellect, but as an aid, and for the time, a substitute for parental care. It is not an evil that the zeal of those who estimated them so differently from all this, as many have done, should tire, and their ardor wax cold. But the real and intelligent friends of Infant Schools discover in this no cause of discouragement, for they perceive nothing more than might have been expected from the first.

If a few associations — and many *individuals* — whose zeal was in advance of their knowledge, or whose purposes were selfish, have remitted their exertions, and ceased to chant the praises of the Infant School *system*, we have the satisfaction of knowing that the confidence of another portion of the community in early infant education was never greater than at present. We may even go farther, and say that never were the Infant Schools of this country in a better condition than at this moment. They may, indeed, be fewer in number than formerly; though we are not sure that even this is the fact. But they are better organized — their purposes better understood — the intellect is cultivated less, in proportion,

and the affections more — teachers are becoming better qualified — the methods of instructing and educating are becoming less mechanical — and the school room and its inmates, in appearance and influences are daily assuming a stronger resemblance to the parlor and the domestic circle. It is less frequently thronged with those visitors whose object was chiefly the gratification of an idle curiosity, or to observe and report abroad those 'wonderful infantile feats' which would ever have done more honor to 'learned brutes' than to beings endowed with reason.

It is true, that in order to render these schools what they should be, much remains to be done. Not only are the 'affections' to *keep pace* with the 'intellect,' but they are, in our view, to take the precedence. We object to much studied effort, to develope and cultivate mere intellect during those early years at which children are assigned to the infant school room. And against effecting it by *tasks*, and *long* demands upon the *attention*, we protest. Let us not be misunderstood. We are not for resolving the whole process into mere amusement, and thus form habits of mental dissipation. By no means. Knowledge must indeed be communicated. But of what knowledge, in the first place? Of things, hundreds and thousands of miles distant, recorded in books, and to be received only by faith in the teacher, rather than a confidence in his own experience? We doubt it. We believe some of the first lessons of the infant are on the things which first strike his attention; the beings and objects around him. When he has learned that the living and moving beings about him are sentient, like himself, — when he has learned that like himself, they are susceptible of pain and pleasure, and studious to avoid the former and secure the latter, — then is the intellect sufficiently developed to admit of the cultivation of the affections. Then may the 'law' be written on the infantile heart, and every lesson be enforced by an appeal to its authority.

In eliciting and developing the affections of the infant, they should undoubtedly be first directed to those with whom they are nearest in contact, and to whom their relation is most obvious. To endeavor to awaken the sympathies of the young, for those who are more remote, before they have been directed to parents, teachers, brothers, sisters and playmates, is manifestly erroneous. Equally so, is it to attempt to awaken the *affections* in the same order. We have already said that they must be led to know that those around them are susceptible of pain and pleasure. We will now add, that no duty is more obvious and imperative than to lead the juvenile heart to sympathize with its fellow beings; — to 'rejoice with those who rejoice, and weep with those that weep;' and to do everything in its power to promote their happiness. Nothing

will do this more effectually, than allowing them to do good to others. 'It is more blessed to give than to receive,' is in our view, the great principle of moral education. It is on this account, that we have hailed with delight juvenile benevolent associations.

But this is not the only, nor the principal way of doing good. We are too prone to misunderstand or forget what doing good actually is. We confine it perhaps to giving to others; and the greater the liberality, the greater, we are apt to think, is the amount of good done. But doing good, is of a more general nature than all this; for whenever we make one human creature happier or better than he would have been without our help, then we do good, and cannot, (if we would) escape being blessed by the act; — so God has constituted us. Dr Dwight used to say, 'He that makes a little child happier for half an hour, is a fellow worker with God.' In like manner, the child who makes his fellow child happier, is engaged in the same noble employment.

Is a pupil of the Infant School ill? His companions should be taught to sympathize with him, and to desire to do kind offices for him, in the hope of restoring his health. Is he fretful or irritable? So far from being allowed to tease him or even to laugh at him, they should be taught to pity him, and if possible, soothe him. Is he disposed to be morose or gloomy? Let attempts be encouraged to render him cheerful and happy. Is he slow to learn? Let them not triumph over him, but help him forward. Engage them in teaching him. Is he apt to disobey? Let them encourage him to obedience, first, by being promptly obedient themselves, and secondly, by urging him on every proper occasion to his duty. Are his clothes disordered or soiled? Let them remind him of it in an appropriate manner, and perhaps help him clean or adjust them. Have they fruit or nuts, or any other article, on which they set a high value? They should learn sometimes to 'impart a portion' to their companions. In a word, let them be ready and anxious on every opportunity to show themselves kind, charitable, and friendly to their companions, and all with whom they are conversant.

There are various ways of doing this, but much depends on the teacher's power of invention. Opportunities for this purpose do not always, in the natural course of the events of the school room, recur often enough. Sometimes, however, an ingenious teacher might spend a large proportion of the hours allotted him in giving a moral tendency to the events which do occur. At other times, much may be done by artificial means; among the most prominent of which, are well told stories. We have seen a general conscientiousness — a scrupulous regard to right and wrong, at least *while in the school room* — established almost solely by story-telling. To those who have not a happy faculty in relating stories, reading

them may be substituted, though not with the same effect. The art of story-telling, we conceive, to be almost indispensable to every teacher, from the mother and infant school teacher, to him who teaches adults, whether by tens or thousands; and he who should endow a professorship of this kind for one of our colleges would perhaps be found, in the result, next to him who should fill the professor's chair, one of the greatest public benefactors.

The infant school teacher, above all, who possesses this happy qualification, can exercise an incalculable power over the consciences of his pupils. How have we been struck to see them sit in almost breathless silence, and hear with increased interest, a story which pleased them, related for the seventh, eighth, or tenth time! This is a happy trait of infant character; and the teacher who has not learned how to avail himself of the advantages it affords, has not yet acquired all the rudiments of his profession.

These desultory remarks have been elicited by the perusal of the two reports, whose names stand at the head of this article. The first has reference to an Infant School, which was put in operation on the 4th of June, 1832. It is under the direction of Misses Carr and McGinnis; the former acting as superintendent or principal teacher. The report represents the school as highly flourishing, and under excellent supervision and management.

Judging from this report, we should be led to the conclusion that an approximation has here been made to what we conceive to be the true intention of an Infant School. The primary object appears to be the formation of character. This must be inferred from the language of the report:

'A spectator might spend a day in our school, and not be strongly impressed with its progress or utility. He would estimate its worth and efficiency, only by knowing what the children were at the time of their entrance, and from what places and what associations they came. If he could be apprised of their true character and condition, especially if he could have seen with his own eyes the hole or pit whence they were digged, he would not fail to admire the progress which has been made toward their becoming polished stones. They are not now far advanced in knowledge; but they are taken up out of the streets, and placed for a great portion of their time under a happy moral influence, and the effect upon their tempers and habits is manifestly great and happy.'

To those who suppose that the Infant School System has failed, we recommend the careful perusal of the whole report. It professes to describe a school of such a character, as they would doubtless rejoice to see extended throughout the country; and we believe there are many such; some we hope better. But we cannot deny ourselves the pleasure of inserting entire, that part of the

Report, which embraces a statement of the present condition of this school, from the pen of the Superintendent.

'The total number of children received has been one hundred and thirty; of whom thirtyone were transient scholars, and ninetynine were permanent. Of the ninetynine, forty have been taught the alphabet, at least. Eighty are now on the roll; of whom thirty have been received since December. Six have been removed of choice to other schools. Ten of the whole number had attended other schools previous to their entrance here; but none knew their letters, and we have scarcely found a parent who can read. Nearly all used profane and indecent language in their common discourse; but violence and rudeness marked their conduct, rather than falsehood and deceit, the entire want of discipline at home rendering the concealment of a fault unnecessary. It is a remarkable fact, that although they are surrounded by temptations, an instance of theft has never to our knowledge occurred among them. In the experience of five years, during which we have mingled with six hundred children of all grades in society, we have never met with honesty so scrupulous; and we are unable to account for the fact.

'After the most diligent inquiry, we have found but one who had any knowledge of the Supreme Being, or of moral responsibility. We believe that most of them are now delighted to claim an affinity with the Father of the universe, and try to bring their conduct into obedience to his laws.

'They were excessively filthy when they entered the school, and a large number were covered with vermin and disease. A total change has taken place in these respects, in all who have attended any considerable time.

'Of our present state we can only say, that seven classes are engaged in spelling; embracing all the older children who have been in school the requisite time; all of whom are taught to form arithmetical figures on slates, preparatory to cyphering; also, geometrical figures. In the last they exert much skill, and seem particularly to enjoy the exercise.

'In all the branches taught, we have arrived rather at that stage when curiosity is excited, than that when information is gained; as their extreme ignorance warned us to proceed very slowly, lest we should only injure, when we intended to improve. Many, many months saw us only breaking up the ground and destroying the weeds.'

But the following facts, which are also in the language of the Superintendent, are peculiarly striking:

'I. M. was brought to us at our commencement, convulsed with rage; blows and kicks were freely dispensed to teachers and schoolmates, and for weeks we almost despaired of making any alteration in his savage propensities. But the mollifying influence of gentleness and affection have had their effect, and at school or home he has become a gentle, docile boy.

'E. C. a fine girl of five years, was brought to us in a similar situation. "Sure, ma'am," said the mother, while she exhibited her bruised person, "it is not for want of "*bating*" she 's so bad." Her remark suggested the mode of treatment, and from that hour a look has governed her, and a more gentle, amiable child we never had the happiness of meeting.

'I. C. aged four years, was introduced by his father with "this is a bad boy, ma'am, and I'll give you two dollars a week if you'll take care of him." We found his worst fault to be a propensity for knocking his op-

ponents down; and the bruised faces in the school for many weeks gave testimony to the strength of his arm. His noble qualities have been brought out, and he is now one of the charms of our little family: tender-hearted and affectionate, he is the friend of all the distressed little ones; none so ready to share, none so ready to soothe.

'P. G. we found a few months ago, in a state of semi-nudity, and perfectly wild in appearance and manners. He is now the foremost in knowledge, and his course must be onward. Nothing is an impediment to his attendance; sickness or storms detain him not; but all this talent is accompanied by a corresponding violence of temper that makes us tremble for the future.

'I. & H. M. the first six years, and the last twenty months old, are the children of an intemperate mother, who, on our remonstrating with her on her habits, assured us that she gave liquor to these children that they might be inured to it early! And that the youngest would not take it unless *forced* to do so! The next day, on speaking to the children on this, to them intensely interesting subject, the boy said, "Miss C——, I don't drink rum! When my father gives it me, I only puts my tongue in it, and sets the tumbler on the table! I only makes believe drink it."

'M. F. is a lovely little girl, whose friendless appearance attracted our attention. — After repeated visits to her home, which we found constantly locked, we succeeded in seeing her mother, a catholic, who had many natural fears which we removed. She said she was forced to leave her home early in the morning, and to lock her poor child out, committing her to the mercy of Heaven. Now she labors with a grateful heart.

'E. B. came to us a month ago, covered with vermin, and the picture of all miserable passions; but love and kindness are humanizing the heart of this neglected child, and she can scarcely be forced to her home, where none await even for her food: she invariably remains with us until the school is closed for the night.'

The other Report to which we have referred, embraces a particular account of the origin, progress and present condition of two more infant schools in this city. One is located at present in Stillman Street, and has received, during the year, one hundred and twentyone new scholars; of which eightyfour have left and seven have died. The attendance in winter, is about forty; in summer, from sixty to seventy. The number now on the list is 75. The other was opened in Garden Street, in October, with thirteen scholars. There are sixty now on the list, and the number is daily increasing. Both these schools appear to be in a flourishing condition, and exerting a very salutary moral influence. There was another school belonging to the society in Bedford Street, but for various reasons it has been discontinued.

This report also presents many interesting anecdotes illustrating the importance and efficacy of infant school instruction; besides some valuable remarks on the subject in general. We have only room for the following extract.

'Infant schools take the children of the poor, when only eighteen months old, and place them under the care of a pious and intelligent teacher, who from day to day, endeavors to instil into their tender minds the

great truths and duties of religion — constantly endeavoring to counteract the bad influence of home, by drawing them to the love and practice of every virtue, blending amusement and instruction in the useful branches of knowledge. This process goes on till they are four or five years old. During this period a foundation is laid for moral and religious character; and here the *Sabbath school* comes in, to carry on the work — strengthening the assurance that these early labors will not be lost. Now what will be the future life and character of these children? They will grow up with correct moral principles, with enlightened minds, and we may hope, in many instances, with holy hearts. They will be prepared to withstand temptation, and become respectable and useful citizens. They may continue in the humbler walks of life, but they will not be likely, at least in this country, ever to become very poor.

'But such is the power of bad example — especially that of parents — that it will probably do much to counteract the good influence of the infant school. Indeed there would be everything to fear, were not its good influences brought to bear on the mind so early. Making every allowance for this evil, will not these children be far better than their parents? And their children, trained up under the same system, will be better than they; and, perhaps, in the third generation, the work of moral renovation will be complete. Then ignorance and vice will be gone, and poverty must go too. What an interesting spectacle would a city present, where the meanest dwellings were the abodes of comfort, intelligence and virtue!

'If these things are so, the necessary inference is, that we can in no way so effectually benefit the human family, both in a temporal and spiritual point of view, as by the establishment of good infant schools. It may be thought, that in hazarding such an opinion, the friends of this institution assume too much. But it must be admitted, that all the other benevolent institutions labor to *cure* those evils, which this is designed to *prevent*. If we can succeed in preventing ignorance and vice, there will be none to cure.

'We have been led to these remarks, from a conviction that the public mind has not yet come up to a full estimate of the importance of this subject. People seem to feel that because children are little things, they are of little consequence. They forget that the quarrelling and profane children of this generation, are to be the robbers and murderers of the next — that those who are now the distress of their parents, are hereafter to be the bane of society.'

But there is one great subject which has hitherto been principally overlooked in these remarks — we refer to *physical* education. A little clapping of hands, and marching and countermarching will never answer the purposes even of preserving the health — much more of improving it. We believe, that for the sake not only of the mind and heart, which can never be sufficiently vigorous except in a vigorous body, but for the sake of physical perfection and enjoyment itself, the physical frame demands a degree of attention in the earliest years, which has never yet been allowed it. The form and structure of the benches, on which the pupils sit or recline — the position of their bodies — the temperature and ventilation of the room — the kind and amount of exer-

cise, both in the open air and in the school room, with a thousand other things which influence the health, to say nothing of food, drink, clothing and repose) have never, in a single instance known to us, been estimated in practice as they *ought*, and as it is confidently believed they ultimately *will* be.

We have thus endeavored to remove the impression that infant schools have failed; we have attempted to show, that to their intelligent friends, prospects were never more flattering; we have also admitted, that even in the best, there is great room for improvement. But we have at the same time omitted one important item which we think most people are apt to overlook, but which should be set to the credit of the infant school system, defective as it has been. Whence has arisen the great change, within six years, in the *manner* of presenting facts to children? Whence the practice of teaching by pictures and sensible objects? Whence the change in the character of school books, and of children's books in general? Whence so many periodicals for the young? We do not hesitate to say that something of this is owing to the infant schools. The *spirit* of the system has been extended much more than the *system* itself — and it ought to be. It is the spirit which is most wanted; its forms can better be dispensed with. Taken in this point of view, — and we believe the view a correct one, — the influence of infant schools which has been already very great, is destined to increase, until it renovates the whole theory and practice of modern education.

Art. III. — Remarks on Early Education.

By the late President Dwight.

The defects in our common schools have been loudly proclaimed of late, and by increasing numbers of the friends of education. But these complaints have been considered by some as the mere groans of malcontents, or the exaggeration of would-be reformers. We are gratified in being able to present the following remarks from the late President of Yale College, on the same point. They were made in one of the discussions which were held regularly by the members of the senior class, under his care, on the study of the dead languages. Only those who heard the observations of Dr Dwight on the various topics brought before him, can realize the richness of thought and the variety of facts which characterized them; and we are happy to learn that the gentleman to whose kind-

ness we are indebted for the following extract, is preparing for publication a copy of his notes, taken in short-hand at the time. It retains, so remarkably, the vivacity and the peculiar manner of the late President, that this alone would satisfy us of its accuracy, had we not other sufficient grounds to place entire reliance upon. We hope it will soon be issued, and that the first portion will be so welcomed by those who value the character of the President as to encourage the publication of the whole series.

'I suppose that God has formed the mind in such a manner, that in childhood it is better capable of acquiring particular kinds of knowledge than at other periods of life, I am therefore in favor of communicating such branches, at such times as Providence seems to have pointed out for them. I have supposed it to be wise to teach children words and facts, especially facts of a religious nature; for those who have made the experiment must have found, that they take a peculiar interest in the great doctrines of religion, the narratives of the Scriptures, &c; and they show so plainly that they are able to comprehend and apply them, that it seems as if their minds had been made expressly for that purpose. In teaching a child a religious doctrine, however, care should be taken to present it in its simple form, that it may not come up in a partial or unnatural manner so as to produce perplexity in the mind. This would impair the course of instruction, and do more harm than good. I would urge this subject very seriously, and press the importance of communicating this interesting and indispensable branch of instruction at the early period of life. If we neglect it, we lose the benefit of the constitution God has given us.

'With the dead languages also, I would begin early. I advise you to send children to study Greek and Latin at eight years of age, and to let them study them till fourteen. Some children may begin earlier, some should begin later; but the time I have set will form the basis of a good general rule. I have taught many little children, and have had such experience that I know pretty well the state of their minds. I think very little of theory in this case, and would conduct in relation to it under the dictates of experience, and nothing else. I am better pleased with Mr Locke's method*

* Mr Locke prefers that Latin should be taught by conversation, as is done in modern languages. But if this cannot be effected, he observes: — 'The next best is to have him taught as near this way as may be; which is by taking some easy and pleasant book, such as *Æsop's Fables*, and writing the English translation (made as literal as it can be) in one line, and the *Latin* which answer each of them, just over it, in another. These, let him read, every day, over and over again, till he perfectly understands the *Latin*, and then go on to another fable, till he be also perfect in that, not omitting what he is already perfect in, but

of teaching languages than any other I have ever met with, or that has been adopted. Children learn words best and most easily by hearing them spoken; and I think this would be the most excellent way for teaching Latin and Greek. By adopting this method, those languages, I think, would be obtained at an earlier age than they now are. I would not take away books, but would speak in those languages to the children, so that they should learn them in part as they do their mother tongue. * * *

'There are many other things which might be taught to children in a similar way, and which are never well taught. * * It is all wrong, so far as I have observed our schools, and the influence of the present system is very much to be lamented. If some of the most unquestionable and reasonable improvements were introduced, they would procure great advantages. But half the time now employed would be required, and the child would be much better taught. But can it be necessary to devote as much as one half of the time between seven and fourteen years of age in teaching to read and write? No. But some use must be made of the time, and what would not be required for this purpose, I would fill up with some other profitable branches of instruction. I would teach words and facts: religious, historical, geographical, &c. But it is not sufficient to say merely that much time is now lost; it is often worse than lost. For during this long attendance at school while the child makes for a long time little or no progress, bad habits are imbibed which are not afterwards got rid of; particularly dismal habits of reading, which go to the grave, with it.

'I would employ the child at writing so long as it is really a pleasure, which is as long as he derives a benefit from the exercise. I would then put him to arithmetic, the learning of words, and of facts, so long as each of these in turn are pleasant; and by frequent changes, occupy, and agreeably occupy, the time. I have seen the operation of different plans of study so long, and have had such an acquaintance with minds, that I assert — *All love facts.* Put geography, history, travels, novels, plays, &c, together, and then inquire, and we find facts are the basis on which we erect the whole amount of knowledge subsequently acquired. Such being the fact, we should store the youthful mind with useful materials;

sometimes revising that, to keep it in his memory. And when he comes to write, let these be set him for copies, which, with the exercise of his hand, will also advance him in *Latin*. This being a more imperfect way than by talking *Latin* to him, the formation of the verbs first, and afterwards the declensions of the nouns and pronouns, perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the *Latin tongue*, which varies the signification of verbs and nouns, not as the modern languages do, by particles prefixed, but by changing the last syllables. More than this of Grammar, I think he need not have, till he can read himself *Sanctii Minerva*, with *Scioppius* and *Perizonius's* notes.' — *Thoughts on Education, p.* 242.

and by the plan recommended there would be no danger of disappointing any other valuable purpose. I believe a child might be well versed in the facts that constitute the general history of the church, his own country, Greece, England, Rome, &c, and at the same time be considerably acquainted with the Roman and Grecian languages. But the fault is with the parents: they will not pay for school masters. They will incur more expense to teach a young lady to embroider a piece which 'is to hang up,' as it is called, to paint a piece, and to play a few tunes, than it would cost to make her wise, and her brother too. I will not undertake to say whether these acquirements are not better than wisdom; but wisdom is still of a certain degree of value.

'I have made these remarks that you may know how to go to work, when the instruction of the young shall be committed to you. I return to the subject in dispute, to show you why I approve of the study of the Dead Languages.'

It is gratifying to us to find such a testimony in favor of views which we have so often expressed, and which often meet with opposition from the 'conservatives' in education; and we hope at some future period to be able to present other views of this great man, equally in accordance with the spirit of modern improvement. We cannot refrain from inserting here an extract from the 'District School as it was', a little work which only needs to be glanced at to be read by every lover of 'animated nature,' and of schools. A novice, in petticoats, is introduced to begin his labors on the alphabet.

'The alphabetical page of the spelling-book is presented and he is asked, 'What's that?' But he cannot tell. He is but two years and a half old, and has been sent to school to relieve his mother from trouble rather than to learn. No one at home has yet shown or named a letter to him. He has never had even that celebrated character, round O, pointed out to his notice. It was an older beginner, most probably, who being asked a similar question about the first letter of the alphabet, replied, 'I know him by sight, but can't call him by name.' But our namesake of the wise man, does not know the gentleman even by sight, nor any of his twentyfive companions.

'The little chit, at first so timid and almost inaudible in enunciation, in a few days becomes accustomed to the place and the exercise; and in obedience to the 'speak up loud, that's a good boy,' he soon pipes off A-er, B-er, C-er, &c, with a far-ringing shrillness, that vies even with Chanticleer himself. Solomon went all the pleasant days of the first summer, and nearly every day of the next, before he knew all his letters by sight or could call them by name. Strange that it should take so long to become acquainted with these twentysix characters, when in a month's time the same child becomes familiar with the forms and the names of hundreds of objects in nature around, or in use about his father's house, shop or farm! Not so very strange neither, if we only reflect a moment. Take a child into a party of twentysix persons, all strangers, and lead him from one to the other as fast as his little feet can patter, telling him their respective

names, all in less than ten minutes; do this four times a day even, and you would not be surprised if he should be weeks at least, if not months, in learning to designate them all by their names. Is it any matter of surprise then that the child should be so long in becoming acquainted with the alphabetical party, when he is introduced to them precisely in the manner above described? Then these are not of different heights, complexions, dresses, motions, and tones of voice, as a living company have. But there they stand in an unalterable line, all in the same complexions and dress, all just so tall, just so motionless, and mute, and uninteresting, and of course the most unrememberable figures in the world. No wonder that some should go to school and 'sit on a bench and say A — B,' as a little girl said for a whole year, and still find themselves strangers to some of the sable company even then. Our little reader is permitted at length to turn a leaf, and he finds himself in the region of the Abs — an expanse of little syllables making me, who am given to comparisons, think of an extensive plain whereon there is no tree, or shrub, or plant, or anything else inviting to the eye, and nothing but little stones, stones, stones, all about the same size. And what must the poor little learner do here? Why, he must hop from cobble to cobble, if I may so call ab, eb, ib, &c, as fast as he possibly can, naming each one after the voice of the teacher, as he hurries along. And this must be kept up until he can denominate each lifeless and uninteresting object on the face of the desert.

'After more or less months the weary novice ceases to be an Ab ite. He is next put into whole words of one syllable, arranged in columns. The first word we read in Perry that conveyed anything like an idea, was the first one in the first column. The word Ache — ay, we did not easily forget what this meant when once informed, the corresponding idea, or rather feeling, was so often in our consciousness. Ache — a very appropriate term with which to begin a course of education so abounding in pains of body and of mind.

'After five pages of this perpendicular reading, if I may so call it, we entered on the horizontal, that is, on words arranged in sentences and paragraphs. This was reading in good earnest, as grown up folks did, and something with which tiny childhood would be very naturally puffed up. "Easy Lessons" was the title of about a dozen separate chapters scattered at intervals among the numerous spelling columns, like brambly openings here and there amid the tall forest. Easy lessons, because they consisted mostly of little monosyllabic words easy to be pronounced. But they were not easy as it regards being understood. They were made up of abstract moral sentences presenting but a very faint meaning to the child, if any at all. Their particular application to his own conduct he would not perceive of course without help, and this it scarcely ever entered the head or the heart of the teacher to afford.

'In the course of summers, how many I forget, we arrived at the most manly and dignified reading; the illustrious Perry had prepared for us. It was entitled Moral Tales and Fables. In these latter, beasts and birds talked like men; and strange sort of folks called Jupiter, Mercury, and Juno, were pictured as sitting up in the clouds and talking with men and animals on earth, or as down among them doing very unearthly things. To quote language in common use, we *kind o' believed it all to be true, and yet we kind o' didn't.* As for the Moral at the end, teachers never dreamed of attracting our attention to it. Indeed we had no other idea of all these Easy Lessons, Tales and Fables, than that they were to be syllabled from the tongue in the task of reading. That they were to sink into the

heart and make us better in life, never occurred to our simple understandings.

'Among all the rest were five pieces of poetry —charming stuff to read, the words would come along one after another so easily, and the lines would jingle so pleasantly together at the end, tickling the ear like two beads in a rattle. O give us poetry to read, of all things, we thought.

'We generally passed directly from the spelling-book to the reading-book of the first class, although we were ranked the second class still. Or perhaps we took a book which had been formerly used by the first class, for a new reading book was generally introduced once in a few years in compliance with the earnest recommendation of the temporary teacher. While the first class were in Scott's Lessons, we of the second were pursuing their tracks, not altogether understandingly, through Adams's Understanding Reader. When a new master persuaded them into Murray, then we were admitted into Scott.

'The principal requisites in reading in these days, were to read fast, mind the 'stops and marks,' and speak up loud. As for suiting the tone to the meaning, no such thing was dreamed of, in our school at least. As much emphasis was laid on an insignificant of, or, and, as on the most important word in the piece. But no wonder we did not know how to vary our tones, for we did not always know the meaning of the words, or enter into the general spirit of the composition. This was very frequently, indeed almost always the case with the majority even of the first class. Parliamentary prose and Miltonic verse were just about as good as Greek for the purpose of modulating the voice according to meaning. It scarcely ever entered the heads of our teachers to question us about the ideas hidden in the great, long words and spacious sentences. It is possible that they did not always discover it themselves. 'Speak up there, and not read like a mouse in a cheese, and mind your stops', — such were the principal directions respecting the important art of elocution. Important it was most certainly considered, for each class must read twice in the forenoon, and the same in the afternoon, from a quarter to a half an hour each time, according to the size of the class. Had they read but once or twice, and but little at a time, and this with nice and very profitable attention to tone and sense, parents would have thought the master most miserably deficient in duty, and their children cheated out of their rights, notwithstanding the time thus saved should be most assiduously devoted to other all-important branches of education.'

We should rejoice if no more serious accusation were brought against 'the district school *as it is*'; of which we earnestly wish the same author would furnish us a picture. But we hear it reiterated by almost every parent and friend of education, who is familiar with our district schools generally, that they are becoming, to a sad extent, useless or worse than useless. We see one editor in New England denounce those of his state as nurseries of corruption; and the correspondent of another print of high respectability, speaks of those around him as productive of immense moral evil, and little intellectual good. We know a county association of ardent friends of education, who consider them so corrupting, that they have resolved to establish a new system of schools, entirely removed from political control. We should be much gratified if our correspondents would favor us with details as well as opinions on the subject,

and point out the causes of the evil. We believe that one of the most prominent, is the almost insuperable difficulty of obtaining a supply of good instruction. But we have long feared that the union of *School and State*, would prove to be as hazardous to its purity, and unhappy in its influence, as the connection of Church and State, which is so justly dreaded, and so loudly denounced.

Art IV. — Maxims for Reproof.

[We have been allowed to copy for publication the following Maxims for Reproof, from a letter addressed to a friend, which we think would be useful in common life as well as in the school. Since they were copied, the work of Caroline Fry has been published; and we have been struck with observing the coincidence of her remarks, with these maxims.]

A few brief remarks will comprise my views in regard to reproof.

1. Next to the government of ourselves, without which no one can hope to govern others, the most important preliminary step is to secure the confidence and affection of your pupils. Let your whole conduct show that you wish to act as a friend, not as a despot — for their good, and not for your own pleasure.

2. Accustom yourself to confess your own errors frankly. Your pupils will not fail to discover these, and your acknowledgment will increase their confidence in your sincerity.

3. Recollect these errors; and remember the difficulties you find in overcoming them, when you reprove your pupils. Remember also their ignorance, and inexperience, and the far greater difficulties which they must meet in governing themselves.

4. Reprove as seldom as possible. First, try the effect of reasoning, and persuasion, and example faithfully.

5. Reprove with lenity, faults which belong to childhood, — such as those of mere manner, or of ignorance, thoughtlessness, and restlessness.

6. Reserve the severity of reproof for conduct in itself immoral, or which is the result of improper feelings, or wrong principles.

7. Never give reproof, if it can be avoided, while the feelings of either party are excited. If the teacher is not calm, his influence is greatly diminished, and a bad example is set. If the pupil is agitated, he cannot feel the force of argument or rebuke.

8. On the other hand, do not defer too long. Seize the first favorable opportunity, while the circumstances are fresh in his memory.

9. Reprove each fault as it occurs. Do not suffer offences to accumulate, lest he be discouraged by the amount.

10. Let your reproof of a single fault be so frequent as to let the pupil see that he is observed; but not so common as to tire, or irritate, or to lose its effect by repetition, like the hourly striking of a clock.

11. In correcting a bad habit, do not notice every failure; especially, when there is an honest endeavor to reform.

12. Never expose the fault to others, unless as the last resort. It blunts a child's sensibility; it discourages effort; it diminishes his confidence in his reprover; and too often excites a feeling of triumph in his associates, and of envy in the offender, rather than a proper sense of the fault.

But it is of the highest importance that reproof be given in a proper *manner*. Without this, all other precautions will be useless.

1. Reprove with affection and sympathy. Show that it gives you pain, and that you perform it only as a duty.

2. Avoid every appearance of irritation in your manner, or tone.

3. Be always decided, and be more serious in proportion to the magnitude of the fault; but never be despotic on the one hand, or trifling on the other. Never smile, at one time, at a fault which you have reproved at another.

4. The most effectual reproof is often given by praising the pupils for instances of the opposite virtue. Avoid as much as possible, however, referring to the example of others.

5. Lead your pupils as often as possible to detect and reprove their own faults by a course of questions. When this can be accomplished, it is the most effectual mode of reproof.

6. Follow the divine example in the Scriptures, and mingle encouragement and praise with blame. Notice, especially, instances of success in resisting the temptations to similar faults.

7. Seek, above all things, for Divine aid in giving reproof, and for the Divine blessing upon your efforts.

Art. V. — Swimming, as a Branch of Physical Education.

Mr Editor. — The importance of physical education is now universally conceded; I mean in *theory*. In practice it is still greatly neglected, though some of its branches are beginning to receive attention; and we hail with peculiar pleasure the introduction of labor of various kinds, as well as of calisthenic and other gymnastic exercises, into a few of our schools. Along with *exercise*,

these of course involve more attention to *air* than formerly. Bu there is one branch of physical education, to which the public at tention has as yet been but little directed — I mean bathing an swimming. The *season*, the *importance of the subject*, and th *wants of parents and teachers*, as well as the solicitations of some have led to the following remarks.

A PHYSICIAN.

It was once customary among the Romans, when they wishe to speak of an individual as a useless member of society, to say *he could neither read nor swim.* This clearly shows what valu they attached to the latter art, as a branch of instruction. Nor d the Romans stand entirely alone in this respect. *Individuals*, a least, of every age and nation, have viewed its importance in th same light. The governor of the province of Bogota, in a decre that reflects great honor upon his wisdom and ability to sustain th responsible duties of his station, has directed that the children i all the primary schools in the province shall be exercised once week in swimming.

Mr Locke in his 'Thoughts concerning Education', seems t take it for granted that no young man will consider his educatio complete, untill he has learned to swim. ''Tis that,' says he 'saves many a man's life.'

Swimming schools are very common in Europe. Some of th most respectable are found at Paris, Vienna, Münich, Berlin, an Breslau. I know of none in the United States except in Boston Here is one, which has been in operation several seasons, and is, believe, a place of considerable resort. I have visited, and ob served the method of conducting it, and can only say that I hop the time is not far distant when swimming schools on this or a sim ilar plan will be as common as those for writing or mathematics Whether we consider it in a physical, or a moral point of view, i is obviously one of the most important branches of gymnastics.

Besides securing all the advantages of mere cold bathing, i developing, invigorating, and giving health to the body, it has th following additional recommendations.

I. It puts in our power the means of preserving our lives, an perhaps those of others, in those situations of peculiar peril, fron which none of us can claim an exemption. It has been objected I know, that the swimmer will be likely to expose himself, in some instances, unnecessarily ; but this is an objection to which every thing truly valuable is open. The gifts of Providence are alway liable to misapplication, perversion and abuse. But how many *valuable* lives have been saved by a knowledge of this art, for one which has been lost by improper and unnecessary exposure, o fool-hardy adventure !

II. It counteracts the ill effects which might otherwise arise from cold bathing. There are few who bathe who will be contented with a single plunge into the water, or with a few repetitions of this plunge. And it may be easily shown, that the debilitating effects which we sometimes feel from cold bathing, are less likely to follow from remaining a short time under the water, than from spending an equal amount of time in repeated plunging. But what shall we do in the water? Shall we stand still, or shall we use exercise? And if the latter, what better exercise in the water than swimming?

III. Swimming is a much *better* exercise than simple bathing. It strengthens the lower extremities, the muscles of the chest, and the abdomen, the lungs, the spine, the neck, and the arms, and indeed the whole system. It also increases our courage, and furnishes us with an agreeable excitement.

IV. The pleasure which every one feels in being able to master a new element, as well as the delight which is felt in the exercise itself, is an argument in its favor. If art never can give us wings to mount the atmosphere, the combination of nature and art certainly has given, or may give, to every individual, the power to sustain himself on the watery element, for a period of time which would surprise those who are not familiar with the subject.

It may be said that if the Creator had intended man for swimming, he would probably be able to do so without the assistance of art; whereas, it is well known that few infants can swim when first placed in the water. But if this objection proves anything, it proves too much. Mankind, in the earliest period of infancy, are helpless in *every* respect. We can no more procure our necessary food without aid, than we can swim. There are also many of the arts of life to which we could never attain, if life were extended to a thousand years, without friendly assistance. The mere fact that we cannot swim as soon as we are born, like animals in whom instinct is substituted for reason, no more proves that we ought not to be *taught* to swim, than the fact that we cannot procure our food or practice the mechanic arts, proves that we ought to starve, or spend our lives in idleness.

V. The *facility* with which this art is acquired, is another argument in favor of making it a part of education. If it were to cost us a seven years' apprenticeship, the case would be altered. But in the Boston swimming school I cannot learn that any one who has made a fair experiment, has ever failed of becoming an expert swimmer in *one term*, or about four months; that is, by spending from ten to fifteen minutes a day during this period. Out of more than 200, the number that attended last summer, there was not one who failed to acquire the art of maintaining himself

above the water, with the utmost ease, for *half an hour* at a time. And a very large proportion of this number acquired this degree of skill in from eight to twelve lessons. It should also be observed, that those who are taught *swimming* according to the most approved rules of the art, ever after swim with more ease, as well as dexterity, than those who are not.

We see that the whole *amount of time* spent in teaching the most unapt scholars, does not exceed twentyfour hours; while with a large proportion it does not exceed three. I speak of course of the time actually consumed in receiving the lessons. And it should also be understood that this capacity is not confined to any age. It may be commenced as early as five or six; and there are many instances of persons learning to swim well after forty. An eminent judge in the courts of Massachusetts, last summer, acquired the power of swimming half an hour with ease, in a very few lessons. Indeed I cannot learn that any individual, at any age whatever, has gone through a regular course of instruction without success.

It would be out of place, I think, to attempt here a description of the most approved method of teaching this art, as now taught both here and in Europe. The plan is, however, at once simple, natural and efficient. The Encyclopedia Americana contains an excellent article on this subject, which I earnestly recommend to the attention of the reader. One of the editors of that valuable work was the person who first directed the attention of the people of Boston to this subject, by originating the very institution of which I have just spoken. He 'regrets (in the Encyclopedia) that prejudice has excluded females from an exercise so healthful to body and mind, so useful in times of danger, and so easily acquired;' particularly as they would learn it more easily than males, and as the exercise is peculiarly adapted to the female constitution. He describes an appropriate *mode* and *dress*, involving, of course, the employment of female teachers, in a place wholly retired. It should be observed that at the school in Boston, every pupil has his own dress, and an opportunity to select his room and society.

I am fully aware that this subject, like every other, has its difficulties. Salt water, for the purpose of swimming, which is rather the best, cannot of course be everywhere obtained; and in few places with so much facility as in Boston. And there are places in the country, at least there may be a few school districts, where it would be rather difficult to procure even fresh water for the purpose. But they are rare. If the importance of physical education, the value of health, and the utter worthlessness of *money*, except so far as it contributes to human happiness, should ever be properly understood and appreciated, we shall hear very little complaint

about the difficulty of *procuring water*, furnishing the *necessary accommodations*, or *sparing the time* which would be required. The expense in time and money, of furnishing a swimming establishment for *every school*, (except, perhaps, infant schools,) besides one for the *village*, will be found a tax far less burdensome than we now pay, for our neglect. Think of the multitude of lives lost every year in a single country, for want of knowing how to swim! He who is familiar with the public papers of the United States, and has paid any attention to this subject, cannot fail to have observed that not a week passes without bringing instances of this kind before him; sometimes in great numbers. Think, too, of the diseases, which are either generated or aggravated by a neglect of cleanliness; and the immense sums of money paid to the physician, the nurses and attendants, and the *sexton!*

Mankind generally act from motives. Now almost all persons who learn to swim derive very great *pleasure*, as has been observed before, from this mode of exercise. It is very difficult to induce people to use the cold bath, merely from a sense of its importance to health. But only establish in them the habit and love of swimming, and you secure to them, generally, the cold bath, for at least four or five months of the year. For they who are fond of swimming will be sure to find their way into the water.

I cannot but hope that this subject will find a place among the subjects which attract the notice of the friends of education, and of humanity; whether they are parents or teachers. I hope they will, at least, be led to the inquiry, whether swimming is, or is not a means of promoting health and happiness; and whether or not the time has come to introduce swimming schools, extensively, into this country. If they are obviously needed, and yet the time has not come to introduce them, then we are compelled to do without a *necessary* in life. But is it true, that in this land of abundance, we are all so poor as not to have it in our power to procure the necessaries of life?

In order to combine the advantages to be derived from cold bathing with the exercise of swimming, and invigorate the system in the greatest possible degree; — nay, even in order to secure ourselves from positive danger to health and life, the following general rules should be observed: —

I. The proper *hour* for swimming or cold bathing, is between nine and eleven o'clock in the forenoon; that is, if we rise with the sun, as nature intended.

II. We ought always to go into cold water, when the stomach is nearly or quite empty. If we breakfast early, however, this rule will necessarily follow the observance of the former.

III. We should enter while the temperature and vigor of our bodies is evidently *increasing;* but never when either is declining.

IV. We should go in *naturally*, — not by plunging in head foremost; although there is a very common prejudice in favor of the latter method.

V. As regards the frequency and duration of bathing and swimming, three times a week is generally sufficient; — more than once each day would be positively injurious; and the time spent in the water should never exceed thirty minutes; generally ten to fifteen is quite long enough. In any case, however, should fatigue or chills come on, we must leave the water immediately; whether we have been in one minute or thirty.

The following anecdote illustrates in a clear but striking manner the importance of the foregoing rules. It may be relied on as authentic, for it is from the pen of Dr Currie.

'On the first of September, 1778, two students of medicine, at Edinburgh, set out on foot on a journey — a considerable part of which lay along the Tweed. They started by sunrise, and proceeded with alacrity in the cool of the morning. At the end of eight miles they breakfasted rested for an hour, and then resumed their journey.

'The day grew warm as it advanced, and after a march of eight miles more they arrived *heated*, but *not fatigued*, on the banks of the river, about eleven in the forenoon. Urged by the fervor of the day, and tempted by the beauty of the stream, they stripped instantly, and threw themselves into the river. The utmost refreshment followed, and when they came to the neighboring inn, this was succeeded by a disposition to sleep, which they indulged.

'In the afternoon they proceeded, and travelling sixteen miles further at a single stretch, came to the inn where they were to sleep, a little after sunset. The afternoon had been warm, and they sweated profusely; but the evening was temperate, and rather cool. They had travelled for some miles slowly, and arrived at the end of their journey, stiffened and wearied with their exercise.

'The refreshment they had experienced in the morning from bathing induced one of them to repeat the experiment, and he went perfectly cool into the same river, expecting to relax his limbs in the water, and afterwards to enjoy profound sleep. The consequences were, however, very different. The Tweed, which was so refreshing in the morning, now felt extremely cold; and he left the water hastily. No genial glow succeeded; but a feverish chill remained for some time, with a small, frequent pulse, and flying pains over the body. Warm liquids and friction brought on at length considerable heat, and towards morning perspiration and sleep followed.

'The next day about noon they proceeded on foot, but the traveller who had bathed was extremely feeble; and though they had to perform a journey of a single stage only, as some part of it was difficult and mountainous, he was obliged to take the assistance of a passing carriage. It was several days before he recovered his usual vigor.'

This anecdote sufficiently illustrates several of the rules I have laid down, and shows that the power of bearing the cold water

without injury, is in exact proportion to the ratio of increase of animal heat and vigor previous to and at the time of using it. The subject is an important one. It deserves the attention of parents and teachers, and a more extended explanation than my present limits will permit.

Art. VI. — Thoughts on Teaching Penmanship.

Mr Editor, — I was much gratified, in general, with the views of Mr Foster in his Essay on Teaching Penmanship, which appeared in your Journal for April last, and to which was awarded the Premium of the American Institute of Instruction. Mr F. has certainly rendered the community an essential service in his endeavors to introduce the improvements of Mr Carstairs, of London, in the method of teaching this useful branch. His 'Development of the Carstairian System,' which was published sometime since, is in the hands of many teachers; and is destined, I trust, to a wider circulation still.

The doctrines of the *Prize Essay*, receive no small confirmation, as it appears to me, from the fact that another instructor, of considerable experience, advanced views at about the same time, coinciding in a remarkable degree with those of Mr Foster; and this, too, as I am warranted in affirming, without knowing Mr Foster's sentiments, or having examined the works of Mr Carstairs. I allude to a pamphlet 'On Teaching Penmanship,' addressed to Parents, School Committees, and Teachers, by Mr William A. Alcott. That two individuals, wholly unacquainted with each other and with each other's opinions, should come to similar conclusions on a subject, after much experience and observation, is always regarded as strong *presumptive* evidence, to say the least, in their favor.

I am disposed to advert to one point, in particular, in which they agree, for I deem it an important one, though hitherto much neglected. *Every pupil, they think, ought to learn the forms of all the letters, long before he is permitted to use a pen.* The reason assigned by both, is the same. They say that 'if we give a pen to the young pupil at his first lesson, his attention is alternately occupied by two objects, each of which is new, and consequently difficult to him, — the manner of holding his pen, and the form of the letters.' Mr Alcott even endeavors to show that he is required to attend to *half a dozen* or *a dozen* objects at once. They insist, therefore, that as soon as little children, — no matter how young they are, — manifest a disposition to make pictures, figures, or letters, they should be allowed to do so, and should be aided

in their efforts; and for this purpose, they should be furnished with a black board and chalk, a slate and pencil, or paper and a lead pencil: perhaps with all of them in succession. This opinion, Mr Editor, is certainly well founded; and deserves more attention — I mean in practice — than it has hitherto received.

But there is one point of great practical importance, — and I believe this is almost the only one — in which these writers differ.

Mr Foster maintains that whenever a child commences forming the elementary characters, with a pen, they should be made very large; 'frequently from one to two inches in height.' In confirmation of this opinion he gives those reasons which are *usually* assigned, viz.; that it 'strengthens the muscles of the fingers and hand, prevents all cramped and effeminate habits, gives great facility in executing all sizes of writing, prepares the pupil to write a current hand with freedom and ease, and serves also to fix in his mind a just idea of the exact proportion of the several parts of the letters.' He afterwards gives this additional reason. 'Master and pupil will do well to recollect that he who aims at writing small hand well, must perfect himself in large hand; for every man will be found to write small hand exactly as well as he can write large hand, and no better.'

But Mr Alcott entertains a contrary opinion. He says; 'Much time is spent in our schools in writing large text or copy hand, with the letters, in some instances, nearly half an inch long. More than half the whole time devoted by many to writing, is spent in this manner. Now in full view of all the reasons which are urged in favor of this practice, I cannot help regarding it as grossly erroneous. After a few copies of *straight marks* and *elements* have been given out, it appears to me that a plain, coarse running hand, is sufficiently large to answer every important purpose. If a pupil can write a good business hand with rapidity, and with a moderate share of elegance, he will find no difficulty in forming a few letters or words on a larger scale, should occasion require it.'

It is to be regretted that Mr A. did not give his reasons for his belief as fully as Mr F. has done; and I know not what could have led to this omission, but the restricted limits of a small pamphlet.

For my own part, I feel a good degree of confidence that the reasons urged by Mr Foster in favor of very coarse writing, have little weight, if we except one. It may be true that the pupil thus fixes in his mind a 'just idea of the exact proportion of the several parts of the letters; yet even this would be better acquired, I think, by models.' But it is not true, that it strengthens the muscles of the fingers and hand. It can never strengthen a part, organ, or function of the physical frame, to overtask it. Even the

old idea of strengthening the *memory* by loading it with useless and — to the individual — unmeaning words, phrases, pages, and volumes, is now nearly exploded. Who does not recollect the fatigue to his muscles, which his early efforts with the pen produced? It is true, he *endured* them; for the pleasure which pupils anticipate in knowing how to write, usually makes them almost forget, or at least disregard, the painful feelings. Again; who does not know how fatiguing it is to the muscles of the lower limbs, at any age, but above all in childhood, to stand long on *tiptoe;* and how soon the limbs begin to tremble? Now whether we perceive it or not, the muscles that move the fingers, — let us hold a pen as lightly as we may, — are, in our first efforts to write, placed in a similar condition to the muscles of the toes, in the case to which I have adverted; requiring a very great and rapid expenditure of nervous, and perhaps I might say *muscular*, energy. If we give the pupil pen and paper, very young, and teach him to write little else but large *copy hand*, and to do the work *wholly with his fingers*, according to the old system, the road to excellence, at least to elegance, will usually be long and rough. But if the use of the pen be deferred for a few years, and if when writing *is* commenced, we adopt the Carstairian improvements, the pupil's condition is materially improved. But that the writing of *very coarse hand* will ever, under any circumstances, *strengthen* the muscles, seems to me impossible. As to preventing 'cramped and effeminate habits,' or 'giving facility, ease and freedom' in execution, why, the Carstairian system will accomplish this; but the mere writing of coarse copies, *never*. Nor is it true that 'every man will be found to write small hand exactly as well as he can write large hand, and no better.'

On this last point, I speak confidently, because facts which I have observed justify me in so doing. Some of the most elegant writers I have ever known, could scarcely write large hand at all, until after they learned to write a beautiful small hand. They acquired elegance in this art by persevering endeavors to imitate good specimens of hand-writing which happened to come under their observation; as a fine superscription to a letter, or caption to a written notice or advertisement. In my own experience, the best writers of copy hand, have been far from becoming uniformly the most complete penmen. I have known many — very many — who, contrary to the views of Mr F., wrote a beautiful copy hand, but a miserable small hand, through life. On these grounds I have long been persuaded that it is a very great waste of time and patience, to say the least, to spend much effort in writing very large coarse hand; and I think a radical reformation in this respect, in our schools — common schools especially — is indispensable.

A Teacher.

INTELLIGENCE.

Education in the West Indies.

The last number of the British Quarterly Journal of Education, contains a very interesting account of the state of education and instruction in the British West Indies. Nothing but its very great length prevents us from transfering it entire to our own pages; but we shall be compelled to limit ourselves to an abstract.

Education in the West Indies may be considered in its infancy, and little effort has hitherto been made in its behalf. Comparatively only a very small proportion of the colored population have the means of education afforded to them; while the instruction actually bestowed on them, is at best but very imperfect. The deficiency in the means of instruction provided for the whites is also very great throughout the whole of the West Indies, if we except those few families who are able to send their children to the institutions of England, or the United States, for their education. In a few of the islands, the Wesleyan Methodists have recently taken great interest in this subject; and the general interest appears to be increasing.

In Jamaica, embracing a population of 354,421, eight ninths of whom are slaves, only 3,054 or 1 in 112 persons receive instruction. Of these more than 2000 are only taught reading and the scriptures, and only about 1000 are taught writing and arithmetic.

We have formerly given an account of the interesting schools at Spanish Town, on this island, under the care of Mr Phillippo. The other schools which are worthy of notice are principally the following. 1. A school at Pedro Plains for the gratuitous instruction of free children of color, in reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar; but in which oral teaching is forbidden! 2. Another of similar character at Black river. 3. Three schools for children of color at St Elizabeth, in which the pupils (only 12 in all), are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. 4. Three in St George for free children of color, for reading and writing. 5. A Free Grammar school for 30 or 40 white boys, at St Anne's. 6. A school at Vere, where 12 pupils receive a tolerable English education; for which the master receives an annual salary of $3,378. 7. Five schools at Westmoreland, in which 350 children mostly free colored, receive a 'commercial and religious education;' and a Wesleyan Methodist school for 48 pupils. 8. Eight schools at Trelawney, in which reading, writing, arithmetic and geography are taught. 9. Three schools at Port Royal, for reading, writing, and arithmetic. 10. Eight schools under the patronage of the Ladies' Branch Association, in which 306 pupils, 137 of whom are free and the rest slaves, are instructed in reading and religion. 11. Church Missionary schools, chiefly for the religious instruction of slaves, eighteen or twenty in number; in which are about 600 pupils.

The books principally used in these schools are, in Spelling, Mrs Trimmer's and Mavor's spelling books; in Reading, Mr Murray's books, and the Bible; in Grammar, Murray; in Geography, Goldsmith; in Arithmetic, Walkinghame. Johnson's and Murray's Dictionary are also used to some extent, and Duncan's Expositor.

Barbadoes is the next most populous island. The inhabitants amount to 102,007, about 82,000 of whom are slaves. Of the whole population, 1802 receive religious instruction only; and in addition to these, 1480 are

taught writing and arithmetic. There is little that is peculiar in these schools; the course of instruction is about as limited as in Jamaica, and the character of the books nearly the same. In one of *these* schools, however, 12 girls are taught needle-work; and in two schools, embracing 67 girls, in another part of the island, needle-work is also taught. Here, as well as in Jamaica, there are occasionally to be found Sunday schools for the slaves.

Antigua, with a population of 35,714, has 5,784 children, or 1 in 6 of the whole under some form or other of instruction; but most of them are free children of color, except those which are connected with the Methodist Sunday Schools, the greater part of whom are slaves. The course of instruction, books used, &c, are much the same as in the other islands. The Methodists have under their care, however, 8 infant schools, and 28 'Noon and Night Schools.' In the Noon Schools the pupils attend in an interval of labor from 12 to 2 o'clock P. M. The Night Schools are open from 7 to 9 in the evening. These two last sorts of schools embrace 1078 pupils, all of whom but two are slaves.

Grenada, with a population of 28,732, has only 1,156 children under instruction. St Vincent is in a worse condition still, for in a population of 27,714, only 666 children receive any instruction; and of these nearly one half are instructed by the Methodists. St Christophers has a larger proportion of children under instruction, viz; 3,055 in a population of 23,922. Here is one school where 74 white children are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. This is probably one of the most considerable elementary schools for whites in the West Indies. In this island too the Wesleyan Methodist missionaries have been indefatigable in their labors to teach reading and religious principles. Their schools embrace 1289 children; most of whom are slaves. In this work of religious charity are employed more than 100 teachers.

In Dominica, population 19,638, only 574 children receive instruction; and this is chiefly from the Methodists, in Sunday Schools. In the Bahamas the population is 16,499; the number instructed, 1,320. Tobago, 14,042 — 220. Nevis, 11,959 — 1,024. Bermudas, 9,251 — 1,031. Tortola, 7,172 — 164. Anguilla, has 3,080 inhabitants — 810 of whom are under instruction. This is more than one in four of the population. Montserrat, 7,406 — 1,547. In these two last, the proportion instructed is larger than in any other of the British West India Islands, being one to four or five of the whole population; or almost equal to that of New England. Nearly two thirds, however, are instructed by Methodist missionaries. Barbuda, however, has nearly the same; 102 out of 505 are instructed. On the island of St Lucia, containing 18,351 inhabitants, there are *no* schools. In Trinidad, containing 44,163 inhabitants, we cannot learn that there are more than eleven schools, embracing 400 male and 369 female children.

In the day schools throughout these islands, the sytem of instruction pursued is generally that of the British National Schools, or that of Bell and Lancaster. Oral instruction, with some strange exceptions, is however, permitted. It should be remembered that a considerable proportion of those already mentioned as being instructed, receive no aid but from Sunday Schools; which is, of course, confined to reading and religious instruction, principally by the Methodist or the National Church. The number of the latter is 18,023; of those who are taught writing and arithmetic also, 5,765.

It is obvious, that in a population embracing 662,162 souls, exclusive of

St Lucia and Trinidad, of whom only 23,798. or one in twentyeight, receive any instruction, and only 5,765, or one in *one hundred and twelve*, anything like what in New England is called a common education, the state of things is truly deplorable. We are sorry to say, however, that we fear there are a few portions of the United States in a condition not much more favorable to forming and developing national or moral character, than the West Indies. It is gratifying, however, to see in some of these islands, while the slaves far outnumber the whites, they are provided with so ample means of instruction, without any evidence of that danger which has sometimes been apprehended.

State of Instruction at Guiana and Honduras.

From the same interesting source from which we derived the foregoing facts in regard to the West Indies, we also learn that in Demarara and Essequebo, which are colonies of Great Britain, only two schools have been reported to the government, embracing 94 boys and 57 girls; and yet the population amounts to 78,833; of whom about 70,000 are slaves. Only one school is mentioned at the settlement of Honduras, embracing 132 male and 132 female children. The population is 4,643.

Instruction at the Cape of Good Hope.

Among the English and Dutch settlers at the Cape of Good Hope a greater interest is taken in education. Their school books are of a character quite as inferior as those of the West Indies. In a population of 129,036, however, not more than 3,131 children receive instruction even here; and much of this almost wholly and exclusively religious. The *systems* of instruction are those of Bell and Lancaster. Measures are in train here, for making considerable improvement.

Education in Mexico and New Grenada.

The distinguished Mexican general, Santa Anna, has not only resigned the presidency of that new republic for the tranquillity of a retired life, but has signalized himself by another act still more praiseworthy. The state of Yucatan, in consequence of his services to his country, having decreed in his behalf an annual pension of $2,000, he has received only to appropriate it to the funds destined to public education. A disposition to extend to the mass of the people the means of instruction, is in many places greatly increasing. A primary school has recently been opened in Tampico. A college in the same city is also contemplated.

A circumstance no less encouraging to the friends of improvement has taken place in New Grenada. Mr Joaquin Mosquera has been elected to the Vice Presidency, but has declined accepting the office, on the ground that he considers himself better fitted to discharge the duties of a more retired station. He states that he has dedicated the remainder of his life 'to the education and instruction of the young and the common people: the only secure basis of our political principles and national prosperity.' — *N. Y. Daily Adver.*

National Academy of New Grenada.

The object of this institution is 'to establish, promote and propagate throughout New Grenada the knowledge and improvement of the arts, letters, the natural and exact sciences, morals and politics.' Its regula-

tions are as follows. It has a director, two vice-presidents and two secretaries. The annual meeting is to be held in January, to hear the annual report; and there are also to be monthly meetings. It is at present divided into four sections: 1st, Morals and Politics; 2d, Public Instruction and Education; 3d, Sciences; 4th, Literature and Belles-lettres. The sections are to meet weekly, and report to the monthly meetings of the Academy. Corresponding members may be elected, who reside at a distance. The Academy may publish when and what they please.

Domestic Education in Iceland.

Dr Henderson, in his work on Iceland, states, that though there is but one school in the island, he scarcely ever entered a hut where he did not find individuals capable of talking on topics altogether above the understandings of people of the same cast in other countries of Europe. So much, he adds, for domestic Education.

Common Education in Norway.

Schools for the Lower Orders. Every parish in Norway, where the locality permits, must have, near the principal church, a regular, or as it is called, *fixed school*, where the children of the lower orders of the people are instructed in reading, combined with intellectual exercises, religion and the history of the Bible, singing from the psalm book, writing and arithmetic. The parish clerk is the only teacher, and is paid by the revenue of a small farm allowed for his use, by some other income which he receives from his parishioners, and by a small salary from the school fund of the parish, amounting to from $20 to $40. These teachers are appointed by the bishop of the diocese.

The children in the district are all compelled to attend the school from seven to sixteen or seventeen years of age, if the curate thinks it necessary for them to remain so long: and parents who, without sufficient reasons, prevent their children from attending the school, are liable to a fine of from 50 cents to $5.

Every year there is a public examination held in the presence of the commissioners of the school, consisting of the clergy, the *Lensman*, a sort of constable, and a certain number of the parishioners. Every parish has its own school fund, formed by the interest of certain sums allowed for these purposes, and vested in landed property, by certain taxes paid by the inhabitants, voluntary contributions, fines, and other accidental revenues.

The proprietor of a mine, iron work, or other manufactory, by which 30 workmen, at least, are regularly employed, is bound to maintain a fixed school on his premises, and pay the teacher.

Besides the fixed school, every parish is divided into a certain number of *ambulatory* school districts, which have each a schoolmaster, who goes from one district to another, remaining a certain time in each place, in order to instruct the children of that neighborhood in the abovementioned branches. As long as such a teacher instructs in a place, the inhabitants are compelled to give him free lodging, board, and attendance of servants. Besides, he enjoys a salary of $20 to $40 a year, paid out of the parish school fund. They are principally appointed by the clergy of the district. This ambulatory method of instruction is rendered necessary by circumstances; the population in most districts of Norway being spread over a very large surface, so that there cannot be collected, in one place, a suf-

ficient number of children for the establishment of a stationary or fixed school. *

There are in several parts of the country, *seminaries for the Education of these teachers*, in order to render them capable of their task; and it is the intention of the government to form more seminaries of this description as soon as the funds allowed for public instruction permit.

At present, there are in Norway, in the country districts, 183 *fixed schools*, in which 13,693 children of both sexes are instructed, and 1,610 *ambulatory schools*, with 132,632 children† Besides these there are, in the vicinity of towns, 55 *regular schools*, supported by the *citizens*, in which about 600 or 700 children are instructed in the branches before mentioned. — *Lon. Journ. of Education.*

Schools of Arts.

In Christiania, there is a *School of Arts*, supported at the public expense, where 200 pupils, principally the children of artizans, are gratuitously instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and the German language. There is a private school, of the same character at Drontheim. — *Ib.*

Seminary for Teachers at Hofwyl.

While this sheet was preparing for the press, we received a series of pamphlets and papers from the founder of Hofwyl, which give a very interesting account of the measures taken there for the instruction of teachers. We have only time to state a few facts.

Our readers may remember what we have before stated, that Fellenberg formerly established a course of lectures for teachers; but that the aristocratical government of Berne forbade them to resort to Hofwyl for instruction, on pain of losing their places. Since the overthrow of the aristocracy, the Board of Education, under the new constitution, have established a Teachers' Seminary, to be located near Hofwyl, in order to enjoy some of its privileges. As the buildings were not ready the last summer, some of the buildings of Hofwyl were offered and accepted for their use; and one hundred teachers were received there for three months, to be instructed by the officers chosen by government, with the gratuitous aid of Fellenberg and his teachers.

The director of the new institution was unfortunately chosen in haste, and in the absence of most of the Board of Education. He told his pupils that he was entirely unacquainted with children, and as is stated by many of them, gave ample evidence of it, by teaching much that was useless for common schools, and omitting or curtailing those portions of the course which were most important. We regret such a result at the

* The circuit or circulating schools, which have so long been known in some parts of Great Britain, especially in Wales and the Scotch Highlands, had their origin in similar circumstances. Something similar has recently been proposed for the Western and Southern portions of the United States. There can be no doubt of their immense importance, when rightly managed, not only to thickly settled countries and states, but even in a dense population like New England. Ed.

† Including a few thousand children, of the same ages in higher schools, this is not far from *one* child at school for every *seven* of the whole population. The proportion is equal to that of any European country with which we are acquainted; and as it does not include those under seven years of age, is nearly as great as that of the same ages in New England and New York. Ed.

outset of an undertaking so important; but we rejoice that the means and the disposition exist to furnish a better course of instruction, as we learn from the following paragraph of Mr Fellenberg's letter.

'I have wished very much that you could be present at the normal course of instruction which I am about to open, for one hundred teachers, from all parts of Switzerland. They will be instructed and provided for gratuitously, and entirely at my own expense. I have not asked for aid, that we might not be embarrassed, as we were during the last year. If you know any American, interested in education, who can pass some time with us to witness this course, in his tour through Europe, it would gratify us, and might be useful to your own country.'

Berne Association of Teachers.

The same documents from Hofwyl also contain an account of an Association of Teachers at Berne, which promises great usefulness, but of which our limits do not allow us to say more at present.

School of Arts at Lyons.

A school is established at Lyons in France, for the express purpose of developing and cultivating a taste in the Fine Arts. It is supported principally out of the funds of the city, assisted by an annual grant from the government. The students are instructed gratuitously. Any youth who shows the least aptitude for drawing, or any other pursuit which may tend to improve the manufacture for which the institution is principally designed, is gladly admitted into this establishment. From 150 to 180, and sometimes 200 at a time, receive the benefit of instruction here given in every branch pertaining to the Fine Arts. Five or six professors are attached to this school.

The professor of painting is a man highly distinguished in the world of art. A number of the pupils are engaged in the study of anatomy. Many students are engaged in the delineation of the human form. 'I found' says Dr Bowring, 'a very beautiful child of three or four years old, with 30 or 40 students sitting round it.' In another department, the professor of architecture directs the studies of some of the pupils; he makes them intimately acquainted with every variation of the different styles; and it is his principal aim to prevent their confusing these, one with the other. A botanical professor has 30 or 40 boys under him, engaged in copying the most beautiful flowers. A botanical garden is attached to the school. The most tasteful grouping of flowers is made an object of attention. A general professor of drawing gives instruction in landscape, and in fact, in all the departments of art, which can in any way be made available to the production of tasteful things. The object of another professor is to show the young men how their productions may be rendered applicable to the manufactures; that is, how, by machinery, they can produce, on a piece of silk cloth, that which they have drawn on a piece of paper. The students receive a course of five years' instruction in this school; they are supplied with everything but the materials on which they work, and their productions are regarded as their own property. — *Penny Magazine.*

School for Builders in Bavaria.

A school for builders has been in existence at Munich nine years. It has educated 1035 pupils, among whom 401 have been from other coun-

tries. Without considerable funds the director of the Institution has collected more than 100 works on design and building, and a number of elevations, sections, models, &c. The Board of Buildings and National embellishments have granted premiums to 92 of the most distinguished pupils; and sixteen have been furnished with the means of visiting the other countries of Europe. Instruction is given gratuitously; and principally during the winter months. During the remaining two thirds of the year, the pupils are employed in manual labor, by which means they enjoy the opportunity of reducing theory to practice.

The object of the institution is to prevent the minds of young mechanics from acquiring a dislike to such habits and studies as would best prepare them for their future calling. Great care has also been taken to avoid the introduction of such branches of tuition as might inspire them with contempt for their destined avocation.

Physical Education in Lombardy.

There is a custom prevalent throughout the plains of Lombardy, which sensibly accelerates the growth of the child's physical powers, and produces an extremely beneficial influence on its health. When the parents leave home to work in the fields, (for the women labor in the field, as well as the men) they do not leave their child behind them, to wallow in the filth of a narrow, unwholesome room, but carry it with them in a cradle, and deposit it in some corner of the field, under the shade of the vine, which throws its tendrils round the trees; or they protect it from the scorching rays of the sun behind the tall stems of some thick patch of maize. While the rest of the family are hard at work, a stripling brother or sister, who is of too tender an age to lend any help abroad, mounts guard, over the infant's slumbers; and at certain intervals its mother finds her way back, to the infantile *bivouac*, and gives her child its meal, or provides for any other of its wants. The boy is accustomed at a very early age, to assist his parents at their work; but as soon as the girl begins to outgrow the precincts of the nursery, she is removed from her parents' roof and placed for education in some one of the numerous primary schools in the neighborhood. These primary schools abound in all the Lombardy towns; and for children of both sexes. — *Lon. Quart. Journ. of Education.*

Military College for Orphans, at Milan.

One of the best institutions in Lombardy is the 'Military College at Milan, which is appropriated to the education of children from the eight Italian regiments employed in the Austrian service. It contains 300 young persons, the greater part of whom are the orphans of soldiers, who have died on the field of battle, or been severely wounded. In addition to these, the college receives 50 sons of persons in the middle ranks of life; who pay a stipulated sum for their education.

National Education in Germany.

In *Saxony*, every parent is *compelled* to send his children to school from the age of six to fourteen. The superintendent of each village school takes an account of every child, once in three months, who has neglected to attend it, or who has been remiss in attendance; and if no legitimate

reason can be given for neglect, he transmits a reprimand to the parent. If that is disregarded by the parent, *the magistrates commit him to prison.*

The statute of Saxe Weimar is little less severe. Every head of a family is compelled under a heavy penalty, to send his children to school at six years of age, or *prove that they receive adequate instruction under his own roof.* The result of these measures, arbitrary as they are, is to establish a schoolmaster in every village and hamlet throughout the country. There is not so much as a secluded corner with a dozen houses in it, without its schoolmaster; and measures are taken to provide for the support at school of the children of those parents who are indigent. The tax on each pupil is small, however, often not more than 34 cents a year.

Education in Naples.

Normal Schools, as they are called, that is, schools for the formation of teachers, are just beginning to take root in Naples. The state of primary education, in this country, is indeed wretched, and we are sorry to say that the Catholic clergy, in whose hands the department of education is, have not exerted themselves in favor of improvement. Nor are the higher institutions in much better condition than the primary schools.

Instruction at Freetown, Africa.

In Freetown, Sierra Leone, there are two government schools on Bell's system, for the education of black children, of every race, Maroons, settlers, and liberated Africans. In the male school there are, at present, 385 pupils, divided into ten classes; in the female school 264, into eight classes. The boys are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, only; the girls are also instructed in needle-work. Every attention seems to be paid to their instruction; and besides being remarkably clean, neatly dressed, and well behaved, the progress they have made in these branches of education deserves the highest praise. I examined several classes in each school and studiously compared the acquirements of the liberated African with other children. The lights and shades of intellect seemed to bear much the same proportion among them, as among the children of our own laboring classes at home. — *Leonard's Voyage to the Western Coast of Africa.*

New Publications in China.

We have been much interested in looking over the first nine numbers of the Chinese Repository, with which we have been favored by a friend recently arrived from China, edited by the American Missionary, Mr Bridgman, and published in very handsome style at Canton. It contains many valuable articles upon the Geography, History, Customs and Manners of China and the adjacent countries, notices of new publications, and a journal of occurrences in the celestial Empire, and thus introduces us to a familiar acquaintance with this almost unknown region.

In the second number we find a notice of two juvenile works in Chinese. One is entitled 'Scripture Lessons for Schools,' 3 vols. octavo, about 200 pages each, which is stated to be an 'excellent compendium of sacred Scripture.' The blocks were cut at the expense of several English and American residents the last year. A second edition is published at the expense of the British Foreign School Society. The other is enti-

tled 'A Three-character Classic for Girls,' by Miss Martin. It is the first book, we are told, ever written by a christian lady in the Chinese character, and is intended, by precept and example, to counteract the Chinese maxim, that 'Virtue or vice cannot belong to woman.'

It is deeply interesting to see the mighty wall which prejudice and power had erected to exclude every ray of light from this empire, gradually crumbling, and to find so many enterprising men ready to enter at every breach. The Chinese Repository will be an interesting record of their progress, and of the condition of China. It is published in monthly numbers of 32 pages each, at $6 a year.

Education in Malacca.

In the third number of the Chinese Repository, we find that there are connected with the mission at Malacca, three schools for the Malays, which contain 107 children, 60 of whom are girls; Indo-Portuguese schools, containing 100 pupils; and Chinese schools for the emigrants from China, 200 pupils.

The Anglo-Chinese college established by the same mission in 1818, is the only Protestant college beyond the Ganges. Its object is to open the Chinese language and literature to Europeans, and on the other hand to render the English language and literature accessible to all the nations beyond the Ganges who read Chinese, including, not only China and its colonies in the Eastern Archipelago, but also Loo-Choo, Corea, Japan and Cochin-China. The English and Chinese languages are taught in the institution, with the assistance of European and Chinese professors, and an extensive library of Chinese, Malay, and European books. To native students, a course of literary and scientific instruction is also given. Students are admitted from every nation of Europe or America, and from any christian communion, for the study of Chinese, on giving proper testimonials of their moral character, and of their object. And also native youths from China or any of the surrounding countries.

This college now has a fund sufficient to support twentyfour pupils, and has gained no inconsiderable influence over the Chinese and Malays.

State of Education in Dover, N. H.

The following facts in regard to common education in Dover, N. H. are chiefly collected from the Report of the Superintending School Committee of that town, as published in the Dover Gazette for April 9th.

The money expended during the past year in that town for the support of schools amounts to $2,303. This sum, though considerable for a population of only 5,449 inhabitants, does not appear from the report to have produced results so desirable as might have been anticipated. They speak well of the teachers generally, and only complain of the difficulty of procuring reports of the condition of their schools; but they complain bitterly of *irregularity of attendance* among the pupils, and of entire neglect in some cases to attend at all. This ought not so to be, in a town which is the second in the State both in wealth and population. The report says:

'In one school, of 193 scholars, only 29 have attended so much as *half the time*; — the time of the remainder varying from a few weeks to six months. It must be apparent to every one, that while such a state of things continues, very little benefit can be expected to result to the scholars, however perfect may be the system of instruction and discipline

in the schools. It is impossible for a child who goes to school one day and stays away the two next, to make any improvement, or form any habits of mental exertion. This evil can only be remedied by the efficient aid of the parents of the children.'

'It is believed that there are children now growing up in this village, between the ages of six and sixteen years, who scarcely see the inside of a school house from one year's end to another.'

Again they say; 'Another reason why so much is not realized from our schools, is, that *the standard of education is not high enough.* Hitherto a smattering of grammar and geography with a knowledge of arithmetic, as far as the "Rule of Three," has been nearly all that was considered as embraced in a common school education. Perhaps in small districts, where there are but few inhabitants, and little money raised, much more cannot be expected. But in this town, it is believed the standard can be raised considerably higher.'

We are glad to see such sentiments prevail among those who have the oversight of institutions where not only the majority of the whole community, — but often the majority of those who legislate for them, — receive, and must for some time continue to receive, the principal part of their instruction. — The Report concludes with the following paragraph which indicates an energy that does not generally tire till something is accomplished.

'That the superintending school committee may hereafter be enabled to lay before the town an account of the state of the schools, so that the manner in which our money is expended and the effects produced may be known, your committee would recommend that the selectmen do not pay any teacher until satisfactory evidence is produced to them that this requisition of making a report of the state of their schools to the superintending school committee has been complied with.'

Essex County Teachers' Association.

We learn from the Essex Register that a semi-annual meeting of this association was held at Topsfield, Mass. on the 25th and 26th of May, on which occasion lectures were given by Messrs C. P. Grosvenor of Salem, S. Lamson of Andover, D. P. Page of Newburyport, O. Carlton of Marblehead, and L. Mason of Boston. All or nearly all the lectures, which were generally extemporaneous and highly practical in their character, were followed by discussions.

The subjects of the lectures and discussions were as follows:—Correct principles of teaching, as applied to Reading, Spelling, Arithmetic, and the ancient and modern Languages; School Examinations; Suggestions to teachers on school discipline and instruction, the arrangement of studies and the coöperation of parents; English Grammar; and the Pestalozzian system of teaching music to children. The audience consisted of about three hundred persons; and were from nearly all the towns in the county. Mr Mason's lecture, in particular, appeared to be highly gratifying. A select juvenile choir had accompanied him from Boston, by means of which he was enabled to illustrate his system more perfectly. Mr F. Vose, of Topsfield, presented a valuable report on the state of the schools within the limits of the association.

Sunday Schools.

Our readers are well acquainted with the important results, both intellectual and moral, of our Sunday Schools. Especially are they impor-

tant, to the neglected or ignorant portions of the country or of the community, who are unable to perceive, or unwilling to pay for the privilege of instruction in any other way. Every day's observation will show, that there are still great numbers of those, who are in a few years to rule our rulers, still destitute to a sad extent of moral and intellectual light. We are gratified to see that the Sunday School Union have proposed a simultaneous effort on the next Fourth of July, to discover and supply the wants of every town in this respect, and to urge the friends of light, and morals, and religion, to explore every neighborhood. We avail ourselves of the first opportunity since its receipt to announce this plan, and earnestly hope it may be generally adopted during this month, even if the day appointed should be passed over.

Liberal Premiums.

A deposit has been made with the Life Insurance and Trust Company in the city of New York, subject to the control of the subscribers and their associates, for the purpose of procuring Lectures or Essays, on various subjects connected with scientific education, to be read in the Common Schools of this State. To carry this purpose into effect the subscribers give notice that they, or either of them, will receive manuscript essays or lectures, on the subjects, at any time before the first day of January next; and that, to the author of such of them as shall be selected and approved by the superintendent of common schools and the subscribers and their associates, there will be paid premiums hereinafter mentioned.

Should parts of several lectures be taken, the premium for the course of lectures on that particular subject, will be divided among their authors in proportion to the quantity taken. The lectures are to be adapted to the capacities of children, and are to be divided into portions or sections, one of which can be conveniently read in half an hour.

The following are the subjects; on each of them, a course or series of lectures is now solicited: —

1. On the application of Science to the useful arts — for the best course of lectures on which, a premium of two hundred dollars will be paid. 2. On the principles of Legislation — the premium will be one hundred dollars. 3. On the intellectual, moral and religious instruction of the youth of this State by means of common schools — the duty of affording such instruction — and the improvements of which the system may be susceptible: — a premium of two hundred and fifty dollars.

It is not expected that the essays will be entirely original either in matter or manner, but rather that the best authorities will be consulted; and even abstracts of the writings of approved authors will be received, if the original authority is designated. It is not desirable that the lecturer should dwell on detail, except where it may be useful for the purpose of illustration; nor will the brevity, which is essential to the plan, permit full elementary instruction on the subject of the course of essays. General principles and results, and those striking and plain illustrations which will excite attention and inquiry — which will be calculated to deposit in the youthful mind the seeds of knowledge, and lead it to investigation and reflection, will best promote the object in view.

It is desired that the authors will not communicate their names with their essays; and that they will not furnish any means by which they may be known, until after the selection is made. They are requested to have some motto or fictitious signature; and to accompany their commu-

nications with a sealed note, containing the address of the author, on which will be endorsed the motto or signature used in the essay. Such of the notes only will be opened, as have an endorsement corresponding with that of the selected lectures to which a premium shall be awarded: the others with their accompanying essays will be subject to the direction of their authors.

The lectures selected will be printed, and distributed to every common school in this State: and subject from time to time to such use. The authors may, if they please, secure the copy-right of their productions.

Essays will be received from any quarter, either in this country or from abroad, and may be transmitted to either of the subscribers at their charge.

JOHN C. SPENCER, Canandaigua, N. Y.
BENJAMIN F. BUTLER, Albany, N. Y.
PHILO C. FULLER, Genesee, N. Y.

NOTICES.

Lectures to Young Ladies, comprising Outlines and Applications of the different Branches of Female Education, for the use of Female Schools and Private Libraries, delivered to the Pupils of Troy Female Seminary. By MRS ALMIRA H. LINCOLN PHELPS, late Vice Principal of that Institution. Author of Familiar Lectures on Botany, &c. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 308.

The title sufficiently indicates the general character of this work. Its object, we learn from the preface, was 'to awaken in the minds of the pupils habits of thought with respect to the nature and design of education, and the practical application which ought to be made of its various branches.' Without being able to speak of the accuracy of the work in detail, we think this plan is generally executed in a manner calculated to interest pupils, and to furnish useful hints and maxims for teachers. We are surprised, however, at some inequalities; and regret that fourteen pages should be assigned to Mythology, and only *three* to the literature and history of the Bible. We observe, too, that Chemistry and Mineralogy, with Geology, occupy about twentyfour pages each, with very little of the 'practical application,' and with a minuteness of detail not much calculated to awaken interest; while only sixteen pages are assigned to the three topics, Logic, Moral Philosophy, and Intellectual Philosophy.

We were also sorry to find that the valuable remarks on physical education should be accompanied with the direction to supply a deficiency in the physical frame, by a *bone* in front, which the Creator did not deem necessary; and which some of the best physicians aver is rather calculated to weaken than to strengthen those supports which he has seen fit to provide.

In regard to private education, we grant the importance of aid in instruction, and admit the necessity of public schools for those females whose parents are unfit or unable to attend to them, or devoted to objects which they value more than their children. But we cannot consent that any parents who are competent should be allowed to plead Martha's excuse, or the claims of fashion, for transferring to others the task of education which Providence has assigned them; and which we find abundant reason to believe can be better performed by judicious parents than by any other persons.

While we do not agree with the author in these and some other points, we can cordially recommend the work, generally, as sound in its principles of education, interesting in its style, and excellent in its spirit — a valuable gift to pupils and teachers.

Letters to Young Ladies, by a Lady. Hartford: Printed by P. Canfield. 1833. 18mo. pp. 152.

An admirable collection of letters on some of the most important topics connected with the female character — The Improvement of Time, Female Employments, Dress, Manners and Accomplishments, Books, Conversation, Doing Good, Self-government, and Motives to Exertion. We have been deeply interested in examining it. It is based on christian principle, its maxims are obviously the dictates of sound sense, and experience, and delicacy; it is, we are assured, written by an American lady well known to her sex; and is adapted to the circumstances and wants of American Society. We earnestly hope it will not be merely read by *young* ladies. We believe there are few who might not derive profit as well as pleasure from its perusal.

The Mother at Home; or the Principles of Maternal Duty, familiarly illustrated. By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT, Pastor of the Calvinist Church, Worcester. Boston: Published by Crocker and Brewster. New York: J. Leavitt. 1833. 12mo. pp. 164.

Scripture Principles of Education, by CAROLINE FRY; Author of the Listener, Christ our Example, &c. Revised from the London Edition. Philadelphia: George Latimer & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 160.

Practical Lectures on Parental Responsibility, and the Religious Education of Children. By S. R. HALL. Boston: Pierce & Parker. 1833. 12mo. pp. 176.

These are works of a kindred spirit, and we rejoice in finding the number of such multiplied. Some portions of each involve the religious views of its author, which are, however, in accordance with those of the mass of the christian community, and we suspect would interest all. But we would present them to our readers as containing, in our view, admirable exhibitions of the true principles of *moral education* and *discipline*. They deserve the careful perusal of every parent and teacher who feels the want of guidance or encouragement in his arduous task, and we regret that we cannot present our readers with extracts from them.* The titles sufficiently indicate the peculiar character of each work.

The Daughter's Own Book; or Practical Hints from a Father to his Daughter. Boston: Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden. 1833. 18mo. pp. 240.

This work is an admirable companion of the preceding. It is not like another book with a title equally quaint,† a collection of scattered members, dissected with the scissors, and united with the needle: It is obviously the result of the reflection and experience, the sound sense, and sound principle of a single mind. The author

* We regret, however, that such works as those of Caroline Fry should be brought forward, '*revised*' by some anonymous editor, in whom we must, of course, place less confidence than in an author who is so well known, merely to secure a copy right which the law never contemplated. We question whether they need revision; and we wish the public may be furnished with a correct copy of the original, or with the variations confined to notes.

† For ourselves we are weary of this stale contrivance to attract attention. It has more of trick, than of taste, or of truth; and we wish that respectable publishers would rely upon the merits of a work to gain attention rather than an affected quaintness, which will now prejudice some against it. If we mistake not, it will be considered ridiculous a few years hence; and certainly is out of place in anything but a child's book.

has remembered, and analyzed, and applied the sentiments of others, instead of copying and abridging them; and has invested them with life and interest, which will recommend them, we think, to every daughter, who seeks to attain the dignity which belongs to her sex. We were struck with the remark of a female reader, 'that the extent and accuracy of its details rather indicated the minute and watchful attention of a mother, than the more general views of a father.'

The Gentleman and Lady's Book of Politeness, and Propriety of Deportment. Dedicated to the Young of both Sexes. By Mme. Celnart. Translated from the Sixth Paris Edition. Boston: Allen & Ticknor, and Carter & Hendee. 1833. 18mo. pp. 214.

One of the most celebrated theologians of our country observed, that few precepts of the Bible were so little regarded by men of principle, as St Paul's direction, '*Be courteous;*' and yet that it was a *duty*, no less than other means of promoting the comfort of our fellow men. A genuine 'Book of Politeness' would be an admirable supplement to those we have just noticed; but it should be fitted to point out those feelings and habits which ought to be cultivated, particularly with a view to promote the comfort of others in the daily intercourse of life; to point out the modes in which we may unconsciously offend or incommode them; and to direct us to the best method of cheering or soothing or entertaining them, as circumstances may require, without any sacrifice of truth or duty. We regret to say that the book before us is of a very different character. The author admits, indeed, that true politeness is the requirement of harmony and affections; — that the 'love of good' is the soul of politeness; the 'usage of the world is the mere gloss, or imitation;' and she often inculcates right feelings as the basis of right conduct. But the body of the work is occupied with the mere '*gloss*,' at the expense of truth and sincerity; and without any intimation that conscience must be consulted.

It is not less unfortunate for this work, that even as a 'gloss,' it is unfit for us. It may amuse, as a picture of Parisian manners, and instruct those who visit the capital of the *beau monde;* and it will furnish some *hints* for the improvement of our own manners. But as a *set of rules*, it is as little suited to our meridian as a Parisian almanac; and we know of no work more likely to undermine, by insensible degrees, the principles of sincerity and frankness in the young, if it is once admitted to their confidence.

The Young Man's Own Book: A Manual of Politeness, Intellectual Improvement, and Moral Deportment; calculated to form the Character on a solid Basis, and to ensure Respectability and Success in Life. Philadelphia. Key, Miekle & Biddle. 1832. pp. 320.

This work is chiefly a compilation. Some of the selections are judicious, and evidently made with great care. In other instances, the compiler has been less fortunate. Every one who writes or compiles for the young, should feel that he incurs, if successful, a fearful responsibility. He cannot be too cautious in regard to the sentiments to which he lends his influence in giving currency. It has sometimes seemed to us, therefore, that the more excellent the work in general, the greater will be the injury, should it inculcate, along with the rest, improper lessons or bad principles.

In this view we regret that the compiler of the 'Young Man's Own Book' should admit a single passage which encourages dissimulation; — but we find more than one. At page 302, for example, he observes, that 'saying to a man just married, I wish you much joy; or to one who has lost his wife, I am sorry for your loss, may be civil, but it is vulgar.' In the former case, he observes we should, with an air of warmth and cheerfulness, take the person by the hand, and say, 'Believe me, my dear Sir, I have scarce words to express the joy I feel upon your happy alliance with such or such a family,' &c.

Now such advice as this to young men is more than disgusting, it is obviously immoral in its tendency. If such parts of the work as this could be expunged, it might be very useful; but it should be rewritten and improved both in the style and arrangement.

First Lessons about Natural Philosophy, for Children. Part First. Hartford: J. Hubbard Wells, Printer and Publisher. Sold by D. F. Robinson. 1833. 16mo. pp. 104.

This little work is a very happy attempt to teach children some of the first principles of Natural Philosophy. It was written for the benefit of a few children under the instruction of the author, and its successful introduction in manuscript into several schools, has led to its publication. The style is clear and simple; the illustrations familiar, and the interest of the pupils is heightened by chaste and sprightly poetical selections on the topics of each lesson, as well as by engravings.

Cobb's Expositor or Sequel to the Spelling Book; containing about Twelve Thousand of the most Common Words of the Language; in which each word is accurately spelled, pronounced, divided, and explained; and the primary and secondary accent noted; to which are prefixed Concise Principles of Pronunciation, and Rules for the Accentuation and Division of Words. Designed for the use of Schools. By Lyman Cobb, Author of the Spelling Book, School Dictionary, Juvenile Readers, Sequel, and Explanatory Arithmetic. New York: Collins & Hannay. 1833. 18mo. pp. 216.

Mr Cobb is well known to numbers, who have paid postage for his Zoilus-like attack upon the most elaborate work our country has ever produced; as a rigorous 'conservative' in language, and a 'radical' — a rival to the most virulent — in the style of his remarks upon reformers. It would be a work of supererogation to *describe* this 'titled' work. Those who know Mr Cobb, will expect to find ard*our*, horr*our*, err*our*, with public*k*, antic*k*, and all this venerable race of words 'unmutilated and complete;' and those who belong to the same party, will doubtless welcome to our schools this effort to embalm every fragment of irregularity in our language. One improvement we see, which is obvious — the introduction of the secondary accent in words; although we have some doubts whether children will use it. We can discover no other.

We do not agree with Mr Cobb in thinking it 'exceedingly injudicious' to teach a child the meaning of a word at the same time that he is learning its orthography. We consider it the true and rational plan, that the child should never be loaded with words whose meaning he has not learned, either previously or at the same moment. But we *do* think it '*exceedingly injudicious*' to task young minds with ten or twelve thousand words, defined by synonymes often not less difficult to be understood. We certainly question whether Mr C. will enlighten his young pupils by teaching them that *Gage* means 'to *depose* as a wager' — or that *Luxuriate* means 'to *shoot* with superfluous plenty.' We know not how a collection of '*the most common words*' should include such as *Auln*, *Arrière*, *Calid*, *Cento*, *Chamadè*, *Chough*, *Diptick*, *Fustigate*, &c. We are equally at a loss to imagine what improvement in intellect or taste could be hoped for, in introducing such terms as *Bouse*, *Gawk*, *Huff*, *Fuss*, &c. We hope also that in a future edition, some definitions or explanations will be added to assist in analysing and comprehending some phrases of his preface, which we think quite unworthy of so severe a critic.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

Natural History of the Fishes of Massachusetts, embracing a Practical Essay on Angling. By Jerome V. C. Smith, M. D. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 12mo. pp. 399.

Lectures to Young Ladies, comprising the outlines and applications of the different branches of Female Education. For the use of Public Schools and Private Libraries. By Mrs Almira H. Lincoln Phelps, Author of Familiar Lectures on Botany, &c. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co., and Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 12mo. pp. 305.

The Gentleman and Lady's Book of Politeness and Propriety of Deportment, dedicated to the Youth of both Sexes. By Mme. Celnart. Translated from the Sixth Paris Edition, enlarged and improved. Boston. Allen & Ticknor, and Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 214.

Easy Lessons for Learning French, selected from Approved Authors. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 18mo. pp. 104.

Tales in French for Young Persons. By Madame Guizot. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 18mo. pp. 163.

Evening Readings in History; comprising portions of the History of Assyria, Egypt, Tyre, Syria, Persia, and the Sacred Scriptures; with Questions arranged for the use of the Young, and of Family Circles. Springfield. G. & C. Merriam. 1833. 16mo. pp. 128.

The Teacher; or Moral Influences Employed in the Instruction and Government of the Young. Intended chiefly to assist Young Teachers in organizing and conducting their Schools. By Jacob Abbott, late Principal of the Mt. Vernon School. Boston. Pierce & Parker. 1833. 12mo. pp. 300.

Scientific Tracts, designed for Instruction and Amusement, and adapted to Schools, Lyceums, and Families. No. I. to XII. inclusive. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833.

The Geography of the Heavens, or Familiar Instructions for finding the Visible Stars or Constellations, accompanied by a Celestial Atlas. By E. H. Burritt, A. M. Hartford. F. J. Huntington. 1833. 18mo. pp. 264.

Depping's Evening Entertainments; comprising delineations of the Manners and Customs of Nations. A new Edition, enlarged and improved, with twenty Engravings on wood, by Atherton. Philadelphia. Alexander Towar. 1833. 12mo. pp. 244.

An Introduction to the Study of Botany, in which the Science is illustrated by examples of native and exotic Plants, and explained by numerous wood cuts. Designed for the use of Schools and Private Students. By J. L. Comstock, M. D., Author of a System of Natural Philosophy, Elements of Chemistry, &c. Second Edition. Hartford. Published by D. F. Robinson & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 260.

The Child's Friend; or Things which Every Boy can do. By S. R. Hall. No. I. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. pp. 132.

The District School as it Was. By One who Went to it. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 156.

A Treatise on the Elements of Algebra. By the Rev. B. Bridge, B. D., F. R. S., &c. &c. First American, revised and corrected from the Sixth London Edition. Philadelphia. Key, Mielke & Biddle. 1832. 12mo. pp. 199.

Rudiments of Geography, on a New Plan, designed to assist the memory by Comparison and Classification; with numerous Engravings of Manners, Customs and Curiosities. By Wm. C. Woodbridge, Author of a System of 'Universal Geography.' A new Edition. Enlarged, corrected and improved. With Preparatory Lessons, a Series of Questions, &c. Hartford. Oliver D. Cooke & Co. November, 1832.

The Little Philosopher, for Schools and Families. Designed to teach Children to Think and Reason about common things; and to illustrate for Parents and Teachers, methods of instructing and interesting Children. With a copious Introduction, explaining fully the method of using the Book. By Jacob Abbott, Principal of the Mt. Vernon School. Boston. Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 24mo. pp. 172.

History of the United States, to which is prefixed a Brief Historical Account of our (English) Ancestors, from the Dispersion of Babel to their Emigration to America; and of the Conquest of South America by the Spaniards. By Noah Webster, LL. D. New Haven. Durrie & Peck. 1832. 18mo. pp. 324.

Botany for Beginners: An Introduction to Mrs Lincoln's 'Familiar Lectures on Botany.' For the use of Common Schools, and the Younger Pupils of High Schools and Academies. By Mrs Almira H. L. Phelps, (formerly Mrs. Lincoln,) Author of Familiar Lectures on Botany. Hartford. F. J. Huntington. 1833. pp. 250.

A Word to Teachers; or Two Days in a Primary School. By Wm. A. Alcott. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 18mo. pp. 84.

The Sources of Health and Disease in Communities, or Elementary Views of

Hygiène, &c. By Henry Belinaye, Esq., Surgeon Extraordinary to her Royal Highness, the Duchess of Kent. Boston. Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 12mo. pp., 60.

The Child's Book of Common Things; designed to elicit thought, and establish habits of investigation in young children. Arranged on a new plan of analysis and investigation; with 135 cuts. Boston. Russell, Odiorne & Co. 1833.

The History of Jonah, for Children and Youth. Designed as an aid to familiar Biblical Exposition in Families, Sunday Schools and Bible Classes. By Rev. T. H. Gallaudet, late Principal of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb. Boston. Crocker & Brewster. 1833. 18mo. pp. 184.

Encyclopedia Americana, Vols. XII. and XIII.

A Grammatical Text-Book, in which the several moods are clearly illustrated by Diagrams representing the number of tenses in each mood, their signs, and the manner in which they are formed. Being an Abstract of a Practical Grammar, &c. Designed for the use of Schools. By Roscoe G. Greene. Boston. Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden. 1833. 8vo. pp. 69.

The American Primary Spelling Book By S. T. Worcester. Boston. Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden. 1833. 12mo. pp. 102.

The Daughter's Own Book, or Practical Hints from a Father to his Daughter. Boston. Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden. 1833. 18mo. pp. 240.

The Stenographic Olio, containing Select Extracts of Poetry and Prose, from the most distinguished authors. T. Towndrow. Boston. Lilly, Wait, Colman & Holden. 1833. 18mo.

Stenographic Conversation Cards. By T. Towndrow. Boston. A Bowen, and Lilly, Wait & Co.

Stenographic Copy Book, and Teacher's Assistant. By T. Towndrow. Boston. Lilly, Wait & Co.

Practical Lectures on Parental Responsibility, and the Religious Education of Children. By S. R. Hall. Boston. Pierce & Parker. 1833. 12mo. pp. 176.

Scripture Principles of Education. By Caroline Fry, Author of the Listener, Christ our Example, &c. Revised from the London Edition. Philadelphia. George Latimer & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 160.

Advice to Young Mothers on the Physical Education of Children. By a Grandmother. First American Edition, with Additions. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 355.

The Iliad of Homer. From the Text of Wolf, with English Notes, and Flaxman's Illustrative Designs. Edited by C. C. Felton, A. M., College Professor of Greek in Harvard University. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. Cambridge. Brown, Shattuck & Co. 1833. 8vo. pp. 478.

The same work in 12mo. in a cheaper form.

German Dramas, from Schiller and Goethe; for the use of persons learning the German Language. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 422.

Fourth Lessons in Reading and Grammar, for the use of Schools. Chiefly from the works of Miss Edgeworth. Selected and prepared by Warren Colburn, Author of Intellectual Arithmetic, &c. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. 1833. 18mo. pp. 174.

Commentaries on the Constitution of the United States, with a Preliminary Review of the Constitutional History of the Colonies and States before the adoption of the Constitution. By Joseph Story, LL. D., Dane Professor of Law in Harvard University. Abridged by the Author for the use of Colleges and Schools. Boston. Hilliard, Gray & Co. Cambridge. Brown, Shattuck & Co. 1833. 8vo. pp. 736.

Remarks on the Influence of Mental Cultivation and Mental Excitement on Health. By Amariah Brigham, M. D., Second Edition. Boston. Marsh, Capen, & Lyon. 1833. 12mo. pp. 132.

Grecian History, adapted to the use of Schools and Young Persons. Illustrated by Maps and Engravings. By the author of 'American Popular Lessons,' &c. New York. Roe Lockwood. 1833. 12mo. pp. 384.

The Child's Geology, by the Author of the Child's Botany. Revised and enlarged by Mrs Almira L. Phelps, Author of Familiar Lectures on Botany, Dictionary of Chemistry, Lectures on Education, &c. G. H. Peck & Co., Brattleborough; Carter, Hendee & Co., Boston; F. J. Huntington, Hartford. 12mo. pp. 132.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

AUGUST, 1833.

Art. 1. — Cold Bathing, as a Branch of Physical Education.

Mr Editor. — No department of education has been more neglected than the improvement of the physical frame. If a person is not so ill as to suffer positive pain, he can seldom be induced to make an effort to improve his health. It is rarely ever, till we are actually losing vigor very perceptibly, that we can be roused to this subject. It is so in infancy, it is so in youth; it is so in manhood; — nay, it is even so in old age.

But *why* is it so? Who is satisfied with the *mental* progress of a child or a youth, merely because he *loses* nothing from day to day, or from year to year? Is there one parent in a hundred who watches the *improvement* of his child's physical system with the same anxiety that he does his improvement in the knowledge of English, Latin, Greek, or Mathematics? We know there is not one in a thousand. We take more pains to improve the bodily condition of our cattle, than that of our children; though even these do not always escape the same short-sighted neglect.

It has been very justly said by Mr Hunter, that 'a habit of uniformity in the application of heat and cold to the animal body, renders it more sensible to the smallest variation in either; while by the habit of variety it will become in the same proportion, less sensible to every impression.'

This, to the reflecting, is obvious in the experience of every day, and especially where life is almost wholly artificial, as in the crowd-

ed city. We see people warmly clad, on whom the smallest change of temperature, not amounting perhaps to a quarter of a degree, will produce sensations of cold. I have seen an individual who had on two suits of clothes, one of flannel, and the other of deer skin, who evidently ran a degree of risk, in diminishing his clothing, even in midsummer. On the contrary, there are those who, having been in the habit of wearing thin clothing, and subjecting themselves to exposure, can bear a variation of several degrees without being sensible of it. A very aged surgeon in England, in some of his writings observes, that he has undergone every variety of exposure incident to the climate of Europe — has been a surgeon through two wars and is still able to go through another; and yet never, in the severest season, wore *flannel.*

But this last is a rare case; and owing to the progress of a premature civilization, — or more properly, a life wholly opposed to the intentions of nature concerning us — it unfortunately happens that such cases are constantly becoming still less common. Mankind are seen everywhere, in the temperate regions of Europe and America, wrapped in clothing sufficient, with proper exercise, to preserve warmth at the poles; and yet everywhere shivering, at least a part of the year, with cold; and suffering from catarrhs, inflammatory diseases of the lungs, fevers and consumptions; all of which are frequently produced, or at least excited, by changes of temperature.

Nor are we able, were we duly enlightened and properly disposed, to return at once to a rational course. Almost all have gone out of the way. We have already begun a course of management of the physical frame, which has greatly diminished our power to resist surrounding influences; a course which it will perhaps be impossible for us wholly to retrace, through life. For ourselves, of the generation now in middle life, we can hope for but little; while for the rising generation in families and schools we should hope better things; and for the generations which are to succeed them we may fondly cherish the idea of an emancipation still more complete; perhaps a return to the simplicity of nature.

But something is to be done, even with ourselves. And the obligation to do all in our power, is by no means diminished by the foregoing considerations, but on the contrary, greatly enhanced. We may do much to *harden*, (as it is called,) our physical frames; and in no one thing, perhaps, can more be effected than by a judicious application of cold water. It is obvious, that there is a great variety of meaning attached to the term *cold*, as applied to the human body; for what is excessive cold in some circumstances of the human frame, and to particular individuals, would, in other cases and to other persons, be scarcely cold at all. In general,

however, we call that water cold which is below the temperature of the surrounding atmosphere.

Cold bathing in this country, has been attended to merely as an amusement — I mean generally. There are instances where a primary regard is had to cleanliness, but this is by no means common. My object at present is to treat of it in reference to both purposes; but principally with a view to the promoting of health — fully aware that in this, as in most other things, the Creator has kindly united our pleasure with our duty.

The question has often been asked; What are the rules in regard to cold bathing? The answer is short; Bathe in such a manner as tends most to invigorate the body.

But how are we to ascertain whether the body is invigorated or not? Are there no rules which are applicable to all individuals? There are. But there are also as many peculiarities of constitution and habit as there are individuals, and these should in some measure modify all general rules.

The *general* rule in regard to cold bathing is the following. *We should so bathe that the action may be followed by a genial warmth — not a temporary heat — extending over the whole body; attended by a perceptible increase of mental and bodily activity, and an increase of bodily strength.* The eyes will look bright and animated, the features will acquire an increased freshness, the skin will glow permanently, and if we move, the action of the muscles will be more free and unconstrained than before. Although the surface of the skin will appear to have more color, and will actually possess a higher temperature, yet the individual will feel cooler internally. — These sensations will not be fleeting, but permanent.

But when, on the contrary, we come out of the bath, with the skin pale, flaccid, or shrivelled, and with a bluish appearance; when the eye is dull, and the face either livid, or bloated; when there is a general sensation of dulness, drowsiness, languor or indisposition to action of mind or body, then we may be certain that so far from having derived advantage from its use, we are injured. And the injury will be in proportion to the extent or permanence of these appearances.

To the general rule which I have thus laid down and explained, I am not aware that th re are any exceptions in favor of particular constitutions or habits of body or mind; except those where the person is laboring under mania, or some other disease attended by high excitement, and our object in using the bath is to *reduce* his strength, and actually weaken him. In such cases the action of his system may be supposed to be above *the line of health;* and our purpose is to bring him down to it.

There are, however, several *particular* rules to be observed in

order to secure the results which I have mentioned as desirable. These rules were briefly stated in connection with an article in the last number of the Annals, on Swimming, with an *intimation* that the subject might be resumed at a future opportunity. This pledge I now purpose to redeem. And first, I shall speak of the *hour* for bathing.

In this respect, much error has prevailed, even among physicians. Convinced that the practice of using the cold bath at evening is generally injurious, their direction often has been, 'Bathe in the morning as soon as you rise.' But almost every individual of feeble constitution finds this practice useless, and not a few, positively injurious.

A few years since I met with a student from Princeton, New Jersey, who was an invalid, and on inquiry, I found he had been using the cold bath a long time to no purpose, but, as he thought, with decided injury. 'At what hour do you use it?' I inquired. 'Just before sunrise.' 'No wonder, then, it does you no good.'

When we first rise, the strength of the system is partially restored by rest, but there is also a degree of relaxation of the surface; produced partly by an increased prespiration during the night, and partly by the relaxing effect of too warm beds; which renders us unable to withstand the chill of a cold bath so well as after we have used some exercise. Indeed the strength of the pulse, and the muscular vigor of any individual, obviously increases for several hours after rising and using moderate exercise. If he have risen at 5, and breakfasted — not too freely — at 6, the vigor of the body and mind will have reached its *acme* by 9 or 10 o'clock, or the middle of the forenoon. Soon after this, if the individual is actively employed, his strength may be expected to diminish, slowly; but it will be slighty increased by a moderate dinner, to diminish again soon after, and with greater and greater rapidity till evening. Now there are very few constitutions that are benefited by the cold bath after this *ebbing* of the system, if I may be allowed the expression, commences. *From nine to eleven o'clock in the forenoon, then*, allowing the individual to have risen at five, *is the best hour for bathing*. There appear to be a few exceptions to this rule, in favor of particular habits and constitutions, but they are by no means numerous.

The *second particular rule* is, in regard to the temperature of the system. *We must not bathe while the heat of our bodies is rapidly decreasing*. There is an opinion prevalent that we must never bathe when the system is heated; or, at the least, when the perspiration of the skin is at all increased. Hence I have known boys, and *men* too, make it a constant practice in the summer, after the fatigue and labors of the day, to go to the banks of some cool

stream or pond at sun-set, sweating profusely, and there strip themselves, sit down, and wait till they were cool, and then plunge into the water. Now there *are*, I know, a few persons possessed of constitutions so vigorous as to withstand for many years the evils of this practice; yet I believe they suffer the consequences sooner or later, in rheumatism, fever, or some other disease.

However contrary it may be to the prevailing impression, I hesitate not to say that we should always use the cold bath while the heat of the body is accumulating. No matter how hot you already are, if the temperature is *still rising*, and the system is *increasing in vigor:* the hotter the better.

We hear of many a frightful story of boys, who, by going into the water while they were greatly heated, became cripples all the rest of their lives: — stories, too, no doubt, strictly true. I could tell you many of them. One of undoubted authority has recently been circulated, where the result was death, by lockjaw. Not long since, a colored man, near Albany, by plunging into the water while heated at his labor, and repeating it often, produced disease which terminated in blindness. Another person, a white man, with whom I was intimately acquainted, made it a constant practice to plunge into a stream while mowing. Another labored in a swamp for some time, where the water was several inches deep. Both these last, became diseased in their limbs, and were crippled for life.

But *why* were they injured? Because they went into the water or remained in it when fatigued and weakened, and the system was already *losing* instead of *gaining* heat and vigor. To have merely plunged into the stream in full vigor, say at 8 or 9 in the morning, and returned immediately to their usual exercise, could never have produced these results. It is not in the nature of things. When a person is heated to excess with labor, his skin dry and hot, his face flushed, and his whole body apparently glowing with an increasing heat, let him just plunge into the cold stream and come out again, and go to work, and it not only affords relief instantaneously, but permanently. Not only does a gentle perspiration break forth, but his activity and strength of body and mind are increased, often to last the whole day. Let it be remembered, however, that in order to produce these results, the individual must be in good health.

It should also be remembered that I am not speaking of going into the water for the purpose of swimming, but for mere *bathing*. Swimming is quite a different affair; and I will only say here, that other things being favorable, the middle of the forenoon is generally the best season, even for swimming.

Those who lead a sedentary life, habitually, should pay partic-

ular attention to the above rules and suggestions for bathing. It is often supposed that they are less likely to suffer by neglect on this subject, than those who use much active exercise. The reverse is believed to be much nearer the truth. Those who are accustomed to laborious habits, and yet spend an occasional season in inaction, will perhaps suffer less by the neglect of suitable precaution, than those whose sedentary life is habitual; but let even these beware. The system will not bear everything.

The following anecdotes will illustrate the views I have presented.

Alexander the Great, had marched several days at the head of his troops to seize a pass in Mount Taurus, which would facilitate his passage into Cilicia. After several days of toil and exertion, the conqueror arrived at Tarsus at the head of his troops, covered with dust and sweat, exhausted and heated. The pure and cold waters of the river Cydnus met his eye, and he could not resist the temptation to strip himself and plunge in, in the presence of his whole army. But he had scarcely entered the water, when his limbs became cold and stiff; he lost his color, and the vital warmth was rapidly declining, when his attendants drew him from the water almost senseless, and apparently near dying. He was sometime in regaining his usual vigor.

An anecdote by Dr Currie, is still more in point; but as it was recently related at full length in connection with another article, an abstract of it is all that will be necessary.

Two students of medicine set out to walk from Edinburgh into the interior of Scotland. After travelling moderately till 11 o'clock, they came to a river; and as the day was very warm, and the water tempting, they plunged into it. They were, however, *not at all fatigued*. The effect was so refreshing, that they travelled with great rapidity, and with much more ease than before; and just at sunset, as the road brought them to the banks of the same stream again, one of them ventured in the second time, but paid very dearly for his temerity. No genial glow followed, but on the contrary, a feverish chill, with a small, frequent pulse, and flying pains over the body; and it was not until he had drunk freely of warm liquids and used a great deal of friction, that the chill could be removed; it was, in fact, several days before he entirely recovered.

We are informed that on the *Campus Martius*, the exercises of the Roman youth were carried on with all the vehemence of emulation. Swimming formed a part of these exercises, and generally followed the foot-race. The youthful candidates in these exercises directed their course towards the river Tiber, and plunged headlong into the stream. Sometimes the contest did not terminate till they had swimmed across the river twice. Hence it will

be seen that they were accustomed to immerse themselves in water in the very fervor of their exertions, when the heat was preternaturally great; and not after the body was cooled by perspiration, or exhausted by fatigue.

These anecdotes sufficiently illustrate the doctrines I have laid down, and establish the fact that the power of bearing the cold bath without injury, is in exact proportion to the increase of animal heat previous to the use of it.

It should be observed in this place, that to remain for a moderate space of time completely immersed in the water, has by no means the same chilling and debilitating effects, as repeated immersions. In proof of this, let five minutes be spent in alternate plunging in and coming out, and we shall find the water appear much colder to us at the last plunge; and shall recover our usual warmth, and the genial glow already spoken of, with far more difficulty than when we have spent the whole five minutes *in the water;* and especially if we have been engaged in swimming.

Dr Currie relates an anecdote of a shipwreck, which strongly supports this position. Some mariners were cast away on a sand bank near the mouth of the river Mersey, in England, in the cold month of December; and they remained twenty four hours clinging to the wreck. The part of the wreck which adhered, lying in a sloping direction, those of the crew, who were placed on the higher part of it were generally out of the sea, but occasionally overwhelmed by the surge, and exposed to a piercing wind; while the others were almost constantly immersed in the water. In the former situation were placed two masters, stout men, in the prime of life, and accustomed to hardships. These both died during the night; while the remainder of the crew, except one, were all preserved, and ultimately recovered.

It is pleasing to find, upon a recent examination, that the views of Dr Currie, on this subject, concur so exactly with my own; and the same views are still farther confirmed by a little work designed for popular reading, by the late Dr John G. Coffin, of Boston; entitled 'Discourses on Cold and Warm Bathing;' a work which should be rescued from oblivion; and which every parent and educator would do well to consult. They will find here and there a scattered volume of it, 'beneath the lumber of demolished worlds' of books in some of our bookstores, many of whose 'mighty tomes' are of far less value than this unpretending little manual.

There is one more particular rule to be observed, viz. to *go into the water naturally.* There is a popular opinion prevailing that it is safest in point of health, to plunge into the water head foremost. How this mistake originated, it is impossible to conceive. To hear a person who had stood on his head only a few seconds, or been

suspended in some way with his feet upward, complaining of headache, would excite no surprise. How is it, then, that the headlong leap into the water can be salutary? A person entirely ignorant of the methods which prevail, — Caspar Hauser, for example, would never think of this method of getting into the water. He would strip and walk leisurely in, till he came to a depth which suited his convenience or pleasure. This method, a method which nature always indicates, is believed to be altogether the most appropriate and healthful.

The act of holding the breath, too, while we plunge, is disadvantageous; for it prevents in some measure, the proper return of the blood from the head, and thus adds to the pressure on the brain.

It is proper, however, to walk into the water rapidly after we have commenced; for the sobbing and irregular breathing so common when only a part of the body is yet immersed, if not injurious, is unpleasant.

Another important rule is, *not to bathe soon after taking food.* The best time is when the stomach is nearly or quite empty. The reasons for this rule, would involve so much physiological discussion as to extend this article beyond its proper limits.

The use of the cold bath, in ordinary circumstances should be limited to three times a week. For most persons it is probable that twice will be sufficient.

One form of the cold bath which is highly useful, where the sole object of bathing is to secure those advantages of a reaction which are afforded by a single plunge, is the shower bath. This has the advantage of being always accessible. For it requires but little water, and may be taken in almost any private room; and if the *glow* do not follow, a person may betake himself at once to a warm bed and to the use of closed vessels of hot water, and other means of producing artificial heat. The apparatus, too, is very simple I have often used, for this purpose, simply a large basket and a pail. You have only to suspend, or if you choose fix on a scaffold over your head, a basket; then turning it on its side, set in it a pail of water. At the moment when you are ready, step under it, and, by means of a rope or pulley, turn over the pail by throwing the basket into an upright position, and the water will fall in a shower as salutary as if produced by a more complicated apparatus.

A convenient substitute for cold bathing, when this cannot be *endured*, is found in sponging the whole body with cold water, and wiping the skin immediately with flannel. This practice secures the advantages of cleanliness; and the temperature of the water may be adapted to the strength and state of the individual.

A Physician.

Art. II. — Proceedings of the American Lyceum.

Journal of the Proceedings of the American Lyceum, at their third Annual Meeting, held in New York on the 3d, 4th, and 6th of May 1833.

Friday May 3, 1833.

The third Annual Meeting of the American Lyceum was opened at New York on the 3rd of May, 1833, in the Aldermen's chamber in the City Hall, and was organized by the appointment of William A. Duer, President of Columbia College, as President, and Gabriel P. Disosway Secretary *pro tem.*

On motion, Messrs Dwight and Holbrook, and Professor Webster were appointed a committee to examine credentials, who reported the following gentlemen as members duly authorized:

Hon. Alexander Everett, Prof. C. Dewey, Hon. Edward Everett, Wm. C. Woodbridge, Frederick Emerson, and J. Holbrook; Delegates from the Massachusetts State Lyceum. — Mr E. Loomis; Andover Convention of Teachers from New England and New York. — Rev. Mr Bouton; New Hampshire State Lyceum. — P. G. Stuyvesant, W. B. Lawrence, J. C. Hamilton, J. D. Campbell and F. Depeyster, Jr; New York Historical Society. — John Delafield; New York Athenæum. Benjamin Demilt, Richard E. Mount, and Thomas Constantine; General Society of the Mechanics and Tradesmen of New York. — E. Mack, Jr, S. B. Mann, Jr, James McElroy, E. C. Hardy, V. Conrad and W. C. Grant; Franklin Institute, Ithaca; New York. — John W. Stebbins, James P. Benson and Charles Carmer, New York Mercantile Library Association. — R. G. Rankin, James Wilbur, C. Harriman, Jr, J. A. Graham, Jr, and Joseph P. Swaim; New York Young Men's Society. Two delegates from the Philadelphia Association of Teachers.

Professor Horace Webster, Ontario Co. (N. Y.) Lyceum. — George W. Light, B. B. Thatcher and E. M. P. Wells; Boston Lyceum. — Rev. Mr Parsons; Orange Lyceum, Conn. — Richard S. Kissam, M. D., John P. Brace; Goodrich Association, Hartford, Conn. — John D. Russ, M. D., and Franklin Miller; New York Institution for the Blind. — Hon. Mahlon Dickerson and J. W. Sanders; Morris County Lyceum, N. J. — Francis A. Ewing, Thomas Gordon and J. B. James; Trenton Lyceum, N. J. — John B. Taylor, Leonard Worcester, Nathan Hedges, Charles J. Day, Burrit Sherwood, M. D., Samuel H. Pennington, M. D., John P. Jackson and Alexander Dougherty; Newark Mechanics' Association and Lyceum. — J. Holbrook, American School Agents' Society. — President Wheaton; Washington College, Conn. — R. W. Haskins and George W. Johnson; Buffalo Lyceum. — Rev. Elijah Jenney; Alton Lyceum Illinois.

Members by invitation, *(present.)* Don. Thomas Gener, late President of the Constitutional Cortes of Spain. J M. Acosta, Consul General of Colombia. Henry James, M. D. of Albany. — Rev. Dr Frost, President Oneida Institute. Theodore D. Weld,

Agent of the Manual Labor Society. Rev. John D. Wickham, George S. Wilson, John Morgan, of New York. William Mather, Fairfield, Conn.

The following gentlemen, officers of the American Lyceum, were also present.

Pres't Duer, of Columbia College, Chairman of the Executive Committee; William B. Kinney, Recording Secretary; William Forrest, Treasurer, Theodore Dwight, Jr, Corresponding Secretary; Jonathan D. Steele, G. P. Disosway, &c., Members of the Executive Committee. Professor J. Smith Rogers, of Washington College, sent an apology for his unavoidable absence.

On motion, a Committee of Arrangements was appointed, who reported the following order of business for the third Annual Meeting, which was adopted.

1. The sessions shall open at 9 A. M. and 4 P. M., except otherwise ordered. 2. The business shall be arranged as follows: *Reading* of the *Minutes*. *Reports* from *Committees*. *Reports* from *Lyceums*, *Schools*, &c, to be in order half an hour after the opening of the session. *Essays* — in order one hour after the opening. *Discussions of regular questions* — in order one and a half hours after the opening. *Resolutions* — two and a half hours after the opening. *Resolutions* may be offered at any time, *on leave*.

The committee further reported the following subjects for discussion at this meeting, which were also adopted: —

1. A national cabinet of Natural History, to be established in New York, through the agency of Lyceums and schools in all parts of the Union.

2. Meteorology: inviting Lyceums and schools to coöperate, as in the cabinet.

3. Manual labor system, as connected with schools and literary institutions generally, for both males and females.

4. Systematic benevolence; or contributing money, or effort, for common and charitable objects, as a prominent part of the arrangements, both in schools and Lyceums.

The Lyceum then adjourned till afternoon.

FRIDAY 5 O'CLOCK, P. M.

The Recording Secretary read the following report, giving the proceedings of the Executive Committee during the past year, in obedience to the constitution.

The Recording Secretary begs leave respectfully to report, that soon after the adjournment of the last annual meeting the Executive Committee entered upon the duties of their appointment. Under their direction, the proceedings of the meeting were published in due time in the Annals of Education, the official organ of the Lyceum, together with several essays, written by appointment to be read on that occasion, but which were received subsequently to the adjournment. At an early period a circular was addressed to the various local Lyceums, and kindred institutions, inviting them to furnish the Committee essays on such subjects of interest, embraced in the objects of the Lyceum, as they might deem

important, and of common utility, for publication under their supervision. This plan, it is thought, may hereafter prove to be extensively useful, and be particularly beneficial to the local institutions, and become the means of introducing valuable writers to the country. Letters have been also addressed to some of the most distinguished friends of learning in different parts of the country, from some of whom, the Committee have had the pleasure of receiving essays, which will be communicated to the Lyceum. Others have excused themselves with expressions of regret. A number remain to be heard from. During the year the Committee were deprived of the services of the President, and other members of their body, by resignation, and additions have been made to supply this deficiency.

Meetings of the Executive Committee have been called when circumstances seemed to require it. Such measures were adopted from time to time as seemed to the Committee best calculated to promote the objects of the Lyceum. Among them, that for the collection of a Cabinet of Natural History, promises to be successful. Several cases of specimens have been received from Lyceums and other respectable Societies, and the Committee have reason to look for donations to this object, as well from foreign countries, as from the States and territories of our own. By means of duplicates, which may be contributed for the purpose, the committee hope ultimately to have it in their power to supply local Lyceums with useful collections, and thus to promote an increased interest in this important department of science.

The Corresponding Secretary on Lyceums then read the following Report.

The Corresponding Secretary on Lyceums begs leave to report —

That during the year, from 100 to 400 copies of several numbers of the published proceedings of the second Annual Meeting have been distributed from the city, among many of the friends of knowledge in different parts of the country, and abroad; and that although no regular correspondence with Lyceums has yet been generally opened, letters have been received from societies and individuals in reply to invitations sent in obedience to the instructions of the Executive Committee. If a regular correspondence shall be hereafter established between the State Lyceums and the general Society, a correct record may be obtained of the local Lyceums, as well as other information important to the Committee. Several State and many local Lyceums have been formed during the past year, of which unofficial information has been received. Of these, members present will probably be able to furnish authentic facts. Accounts from different places show that the important objects which the society has in view, find advocates to promote them, both individually, and in associations of different names.

Plans have been devised for the introduction of Lyceums into the city of New York, and the principal obstacle which has presented itself is the want of knowledge among the friends of improvement, of the nature and objects of such societies, and the establishment of certain other useful associations of a somewhat similar character under different titles. As their friends become more numerous and influential, it is reasonable to presume that the difficulties will be removed, and the system hereafter established to an extent proportioned to its usefulness and the necessities of the inhabitants.

It was proposed by the Executive Committee, early in the past year, to undertake the publication of such essays as might be furnished by Lyceums, and approved, for the benefit of similar associations in all parts of the United States; and to defray the expense of publication, a subscription

was proposed to the monthly publications. Circumstances prevented the project from being tried, but if they should hereafter prove more favorable, it is not improbable that it may be carried into effect. The example of the British Society for the diffusion of useful knowledge offers both encouragement and instruction for the conductors of such a plan; and while we need works especially designed for the condition of our country, it is also desirable that useful and practical essays, such as may be produced at local Lyceums, should be preserved and diffused.

In anticipation of measures for the collection of specimens of Natural History, application has been made to persons visiting foreign countries and entering upon long voyages, to obtain minerals, plants, specimens of manufactures, books, manuscripts and interesting facts; and such has been the favorable disposition shown, especially by officers of our navy and intelligent merchants, to second this object, as to encourage its prosecution in a systematic manner. The advantages offered in this city for the collection of a valuable cabinet are too obvious to need illustration.

Among the most zealous friends of the objects of the Lyceum, have been found some of the intelligent and influential statesmen of South America, a number of whom have been in the United States during the past year, attentive observers of our institutions and society. At the second Annual Meeting, in May 1832, we had the pleasure of seeing among us, as members of the Lyceum, Messrs Zavala and Salgado, governors of the states of Mexico and Michoacan, of the Mexican republic. From the former we received a note offering his coöperation; and since the restoration of those gentlemen to their honorable and influential posts in their own country, we may hope for a gratifying correspondence with them, as well as to see some good results from their enlightened exertions in favor of education in Mexico. The following translation of a part of governor Zavala's address to the Legislature of the State of Mexico, will show that he is already endeavoring to restore the institutions of learning in that important district, which the late unhappy political dissensions had overthrown. Such sentiments are expressed also by Governor Salgado, another member present at the second Annual Meeting, who has likewise been reinstated in the chief magistracy of the State of Michoacan; and are known to be embraced by many of their patriotic countrymen.

Extract from L. Zavala's Address, to the Congress of Mexico, Feb. 17, 1833.

'Public instruction, which was one of the principal objects of attention to my government in former periods, and the results of which corresponded to the labors of the Congress and executive, has not only been neglected, but the splendid establishments which existed at Tlalpam, and which had no equal in the republic, have disappeared. The "Literary Institute" was destroyed; and the few youth who could not be turned into the streets, were delivered over into the hands of monks, who, whatever may be their piety and devotion, are certainly not the most fit to teach the rudiments of social science, of which the Mexicans have so much need. The library, which had cost the administration of 1828 and 1829 such pains, retains only a small number of books, many of its most precious contents having been taken away. The continuation of such a regimen would have removed everything by which Mexicans might be taught their rights, and we should have receded to the dark days of the Conquest.'

Extracts might be read from letters of General Pedraza, who was invited to attend the second annual meeting, but was at that time in a neighboring city. He has since been called to Mexico, as the only man whose

influence could restore peace to a country distracted by civil war; and having succeeded in this object, established an enlightened policy, restored and founded colleges and schools, and completed the term of his Presidency in that republic, he has retired to private life, but with the same desire to render himself useful to his country, by the humbler, but not less important means of promoting the diffusion of knowledge, particularly by the education of the young. Gen. Santa Anna, who has now succeeded him in the Presidency, is expected to pursue a similar policy.*

Letters will also be read from several citizens of New Grenada, particularly from Mr Joaquin Mosquera, the last President of the republic of Colombia, and Gen. Santander, now President of that important portion of it. That country is of peculiar interest at the present time, on account of the honorable and influential station it has assumed among the new republics of the south, in favor of general education. The distinguished gentlemen above named stand at the head of the friends of knowledge in that country, and are now engaged in founding or improving institutions and systems calculated to secure the prosperity and happiness of the whole southern part of our continent. They have supplied their country with the best European and American books on all branches of education, as well as with the most approved apparatus and methods; and being powerfully aided by fellow citizens of intelligence, patriotism, experience and zeal, scarcely inferior to their own, will, no doubt, soon impart efficiency to the grand system of public instruction, which has been for several years established by law, though heretofore rendered but partially operative by the circumstances of the country.† Mr Mosquera has even gone so far as to propose a uniform system of education for all South America.

* Since this report was read, intelligence has been received of the installation of Gen. Santa Anna, as President of the Mexican United States; and the following extract from his address to the Congress on the 15th of April 1833, will afford an idea of the prospects of education in Mexico.

'Education, the vital element of the prosperity of nations, will deserve the first care of my government, that the nation may be worthy of her high rank, and that a people may be raised up who shall derive happiness from the memory of their benefactors.'

† Since this report was read, later accounts have been received from New Granada. The following is an extract from the speech of Gen. Santander to the Congress, on the 1st of March, 1833.

'I recommend to you as one of the three most important subjects of attention, the plan for public education and instruction. — The nation is bound to fulfil her duty in affording to all the citizens an opportunity to learn to read, write, and cast accounts, by applying for the present a portion of the public funds for the support of parochial schools.'

A new college has been established in the Isthmus; the National Academy has been installed and organized, the National Museum re-opened, and a general impulse given to monitorial and other schools throughout the republic.

Mr Joaquin Mosquera has been elected by the Congress, Vice President of New Granada. The following is an extract from the letter in which he urged them to excuse him from accepting the office.

'In a more private station I will perform such municipal duties as may be entrusted to me; and I shall be able to devote myself as I wish to do for the remainder of my life, to the education and instruction of the children of the people: the only sure basis of our political principles and the national prosperity.'

The reading of this letter was followed by a profound silence, which lasted for some time; and when the question was put by the President; 'Will you accept the resignation of Mr Mosquera?' an almost unanimous vote was given against it.

While, therefore, the vast and magnificent regions of the south attract our attention by the amazing variety of their natural productions, the opportunities offered us to coöperate with the people for the promotion of the great objects of intellectual and moral improvement, make an equally powerful appeal to our hearts. The South Americans seem gratified to find, from visiting the U. States, that our prosperity is due to causes so humble as those employed for the diffusion of knowledge, and the promotion of good morals and industry. Their circumstances will not permit of the display of European splendors, or the maintenance of powerful armies; but they possess sufficient means for the establishment of instruction, and fortunately there are already found universities and colleges, as well as schools of various descriptions, including not a few on the Lancasterian plan; while some of the governments have made liberal appropriations of money for their extension and support.

The Royal Society of Cuba, to which allusion was made in the report of the last year, have been actively engaged in the section on Education, of which information has been given in their highly respectable magazine, the Revista Cubana. A cordial correspondence has been carried on with one of their intelligent secretaries, Senor Justo Velez, now Director of the principal College in Cuba, who readily accepted an invitation to write an Essay on the state of the higher branches of education in that island for our present Annual Meeting. On primary instruction, the editor of the Revista, (Mr Saco,) had engaged to send us an Essay; but the recent desolations by the cholera having suspended even the most necessary employments of the people, have postponed a gratification which we may hope to enjoy on a future occasion.

Should the American Lyceum ever engage in making periodical publications, it is to be presumed that valuable materials would be derived from such American sources; and while improvements in the systems and methods of instruction are going on in Europe, like the great plan of education just brought into operation in France, there can be no want of other foreign materials. A little correspondence with gentlemen in Europe has served to show that a secretary or a committee for that department might find ample and useful employment.

Gentlemen were then called upon for reports from various States.

Mr Bouton, of the New Hampshire Lyceum, on a call from the chair, made a statement concerning education in the State of *New Hampshire*, and the State and Concord Lyceums.

Massachusetts. Statements were made by Mr Woodbridge, and other delegates from that State, in relation to the Massachusetts and Boston Lyceums, the number of such associations, and the progress of education. Interesting facts were given by Mr Holbrook, concerning the late Convention of teachers at Andover, which assembled about one hundred from different parts of New England and New York, and were in session several days.

Connecticut. Mr Brace, President Wheaton, and others, gave a view of the effects of the school fund of that State, and its unfavorable influence upon common schools. President Wheaton stated that a Manual Labor Institution is proposed to be established in the vicinity of Hartford, under favorable auspices.

As it appeared that no State Lyceum was yet organized in Connecticut, the following resolution, introduced on leave by Mr Brace, was adopted:

Resolved, That the American Lyceum do recommend to the various County Lyceums and Town Lyceums in States where no State Lyceums exist, to form themselves into such associations.

New York. Mr Frost gave some interesting particulars in relation to the history, state and prospects of the Oneida Institute.

Prof. Webster made a verbal report on the Ontario Co. Lyceum.

EVENING, FRIDAY.

The Lyceum met according to adjournment: Mr Duer in the Chair, and Mr Disosway, Secretary.

On motion of Mr Disosway, it was

Resolved, That the subject of Manual Labor, as connected with schools and literary institutions generally, both for males and females, be the first for discussion tomorrow morning.

President Duer presented an invitation to the Lyceum to visit, tomorrow, the Library and Cabinet of Columbia College, over which he presides.

The first regular topic coming up in order, Mr Holbrook gave a sketch of the collections of Natural History in different parts of the United States, and urged the establishment of a Cabinet of Natural History in this city, by the American Lyceum, as proposed by the Executive Committee.

Messrs Wells, Brace and Dewey advocated the proposition; and, on motion of Mr Holbrook, it was

Resolved, That this Lyceum recommend to all the Lyceums and schools in the country to procure Cabinets of Natural History, for themselves, and to coöperate in furnishing a National Cabinet in the city of New York; and that the Executive Committee be requested to procure a place of deposit for the Cabinet, and otherwise to aid the enterprise.

SATURDAY MORNING, MAY 4.

The Lyceum met at 9 o'clock.

The minutes were read and approved. The accounts from States were called for.

New York. A statement was made by Mr Haskell, in relation to the Buffalo Lyceum.

Mr Dwight communicated some information in respect to the common schools in the city of New York; and mentioned a new class of primary schools recently established by the Trustees of the Common Schools, in which the Monitorial and Infant School systems are in some degree combined, and

On motion, Messrs Dwight, Woodbridge, and Dewey were appointed to visit the new primary schools in this city, and report thereon.

Kentucky. Mr Woodbridge communicated some information with respect to the increasing attention paid to Lyceums in Kentucky.

New Jersey. Statements in relation to the Newark Lyceum; the Morristown and Morris County Lyceums; and the Trenton Lyceum; and also in relation to the state of education in New Jersey, were made by Dr Pennington, and Mr Hedges.

Professor Webster, on leave being granted, presented the following resolution; which was adopted:

Resolved, That President Duer be requested to draw up the outlines of the constitutional jurisprudence of the United States, and publish the same in such form as may be best adapted as a text book for lectures, and a class book for the use of academies and common schools.

Mr Woodbridge presented a printed essay on Vocal Music, as a branch of common education; which, on motion, was referred to Messrs Disosway, Brace, and Kissam.

The subject of Manual Labor schools was then introduced, by remarks made by Dr Frost, and was pursued at considerable length, particularly in relation to the points embraced in the following questions, which were proposed by members.

1. What has been the effect of labor on the constitutions of feeble young men, and those who have not before been employed in manual labor?

2. In the allotment of hours of labor, is it found that the labor interferes with study?

3. Is any active amusement allowed to the pupils, independently of labor?

4. Does the fact of receiving compensation for their labor, lead the pupils to neglect mental cultivation, for objects of gain?

5. Does the receipt of this compensation destroy, in any degree, nobleness of soul, and generosity of character; or make the pupils mean or mercenary?

The answers given to these questions, by members who were practically acquainted with the effects of habits of manual labor in literary institutions, were highly satisfactory, proving the excellent effect of the system on the intellectual and moral character of those who adopt it, as well as upon their health.

Mr Wells addressed the Lyceum on the subject of the farm school, near Boston, over which he presides.

Messrs Woodbridge, Dwight, Dewey and Weld also made addresses in favor of the Manual Labor system; after which the subject was referred to a committee consisting of Mr Woodbridge, and others.

On motion of Mr Kinney, a committee was appointed, to nominate officers for the ensuing year; whereupon, Messrs Dewey, Webster, Disosway, Cushing and Holbrook were constituted such committee.

On motion, the following committee was appointed to report on the expediency of so amending the Constitution as to increase the number of members of the Executive Committee to be appointed by the Lyceum: Messrs Kinney, Cushing and Pennington.

On motion of Mr Disosway the Lyceum adjourned to give the members an opportunity to visit the Library of Columbia College in compliance with the invitation of President Duer.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON, MAY 4.

The Lyceum met at 4 o'clock.

A letter was read by the secretary, Mr Kinney, from President Peers, of Transylvania University, one of the corresponding secretaries of the Lyceum, expressing his regret at being unavoidably absent from the annual meeting, and enclosing $20 to constitute himself a life member of the Society.

Letters were also read from Messrs Ewing, Gord and James, committee of the Trenton Lyceum; S. Griggs, Secretary of the Alton Lyceum, Illinois; Professor J. A. Pizarro, of St Mary's College, Baltimore, and Laurent Clerc, of the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb.

On motion of Mr Dwight, it was

Resolved, That the thanks of the Lyceum be returned for the minerals presented for the Cabinet of Natural History.

On motion of Mr Holbrook, it was

Resolved, That a committee be appointed for foreign correspondence, to collect information in relation to education. Messrs Holbrook, Frost and Woodbridge were constituted the committee.

On motion of Mr Kinney, it was

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to inquire whether the study of the Greek language is commenced at a proper age, and pursued on the best plan. Messrs Dwight, Pennington, Cushing, and Russ were constituted such committee.

Mr Light made a report on the Boston Lyceum; and on motion of Mr Woodbridge, it was resolved, that it be entered on the minutes, after being extended by Mr Light.

The following is the Report, as prepared by Mr Light.

It is worthy of remark, that the Boston Lyceum, unlike many similar associations, has met with increased prosperity during every successive season since its commencement. From a comparatively small society, it has become, during the short period of about four years, one of the most popular and useful associations in the city.

Nor has its success by any means been the result of mere circumstance. It has had numerous and powerful difficulties to contend with; but through the persevering exertions of its projectors, together with the spirit and energy which have ever been manifested by the members, and especially by the young men, it has more than succeeded in overcoming them all. It has placed itself on a foundation which, so long as the institution shall be characterized by the same qualities, cannot be moved.

A number of distinguished gentlemen, not members of the Lyceum, and several of the members, have favored the Society with Lectures. They have been generally of a practical character, and besides affording much instruction, were well calculated to awaken a taste for the study of the various subjects upon which they treated. Great interest has been manifested by the ladies and gentlemen composing the numerous audiences which have attended the meetings of the course.

There have been two discussions, only, during the season. These, however, were found to excite so deep an interest, that two evenings were devoted to each of them. The board of managers were sensible of an

important defect in not providing for more debates, as such exercises are not only extensively beneficial in themselves, by eliciting information and talent, quickening the intellectual faculties, and inspiring confidence, but calculated to add materially to the interest of the members, when introduced as a prominent part of the exercises of a Lyceum. This fault, it is believed, will be avoided the coming season.

The following is a list of the Exercises of the term:

Introductory Lecture on the Mind. J. T. Austin.
Lecture on Elocution. J. Pierpont.
Lecture on the Education of the Affections. E. M. P. Wells.
Lecture on Indian Civilization. B. B. Thatcher.
Eulogy on Dr Spurzheim. Dr Grigg.
Lecture on Books. Clement Durgin.
Discussion: — Can business men, possessing the advantages afforded by Lyceums and similar associations, qualify themselves as well for the highest trusts, and most responsible duties of public stations, as professional men of literary and scientific attainments?
Discussion continued.
Lecture on the Duties of the people of the Northern States in respect to Slavery and the Colonization Society. B. B. Edwards.
Lecture on Business and Study. G. W. Light.
Lecture on the Blind. S. G. Howe.
Lecture on the Eye. J. V. C. Smith.
Lecture on music. Lowell Mason.
Lecture on the Science of Christianity. Mr Winslow.
Lecture on Physical Education. Dr Grigg.
Lecture on the Human System. A. R. Thompson.
Exhibition of the Class in Rhetoric and Composition.
Lecture on Education. J. C. Warren.
Lecture on Political Economy. W. B. Calhoun.
Discussion: — Have the measures of the Colonization Society a tendency to remove the evil of slavery from this country?
Discussion continued.
Lecture on the Peculiar demand of the age for intellectual and moral elevation. J. A. Bolles.
Exhibition of the Class in Elocution.

The Exhibitions of the Classes were witnessed by crowded audiences, with great interest and satisfaction. These afforded a strong practical argument in favor of the belief, that the active pursuits of life do not necessarily debar any one from scientific and literary improvement.

It was thought advisable, this season, to form five Classes. This was accordingly done, and they have pursued the following studies: — Elocution and Debate; Rhetoric and Composition; Astronomy; Geography and History; and the French Language.

Reports have been received from the Classes in Elocution and Debate, Astronomy, Geography and History, and the French Language, only; but from the interesting exhibition given by the Class in Rhetoric and Composition, which was ably superintended, it cannot have been otherwise than prosperous.

The unprecedented success of the Classes this season has served still more to strengthen a belief in their extensive utility; and has inspired new and animated hopes with regard to the future prospects of the Lyceum. Great credit is due to the young gentlemen composing them. They have

not only done much for their own improvement, but their enterprise has contributed as much, to say the least, as any other circumstance, to the prosperity of the Association. It is our conviction, from the experience of this Society, together with our knowledge of the history of similar associations in other places, that such Classes are indispensable to the extensive success and permanency of every popular Lyceum. It is impossible to secure the coöperation of all the members, in any other way.

It appears from the Report of the Class in French, which is composed of both sexes, that the ladies have taken a deep and active interest in this branch of study. It is believed that the prosperity of the Lyceum has been advanced in no small degree by the lively interest which has ever been exhibited by the ladies in every department of its operations.

It is not considered necessary in this Report, to expatiate upon the general advantages of popular education, for this has been done amply in former reports. — The time has gone by when the intelligent portion of community entertained doubts as to its incalculable importance, in itself considered, and as being indispensable to the prosperity and perpetuity of every republican government. The practicability, too, of educating, to a considerable extent, the great mass of the people, is no longer doubted. It is now clearly perceived, that the extensive study of some branch of science or literature, besides the acquirement of much general information, are not only compatible with, but essential to enlarged success and usefulness in, the common pursuits of life; that, as regards the acquirement of *practical* knowledge, the business student possesses greater advantages than the professional man; that while all classes of the world may assist in improving each other, this improvement can be effected only in proportion to the extent to which each class shall improve its advantages for progressing in knowledge — and that the world, therefore, is one great Lyceum, of which MUTUAL IMPROVEMENT should ever be the object and the motto.

On motion of Mr Holbrook, it was

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to report a uniform plan for Meteorological observations, to be recommended to Lyceums and schools in all parts of the country. Messrs Webster, Holbrook, and Brace were constituted such committee.

An essay on Education from George P. Macculloch, Esq. of Morristown, N. J. was read by the Secretary; and also an essay by Dr Weeks, of Newark, N. J.

On motion, *Resolved*, That the thanks of the Lyceum be presented to these gentlemen, and that all the essays be referred to the Executive committee.

The Lyceum then adjourned till Monday morning.

MONDAY MORNING, MAY 6.

The Lyceum met; and in the absence of the Chairman, President Cushing, of Hampden Sidney College, was appointed to preside.

The minutes were read and approved. Dr Kissam, from the Committee to whom was referred the essay of Mr Woodbridge on Vocal Music, made a report, which was adopted.

The Committee to whom was referred the subject of introducing Vocal Music as a branch of Common Education in schools, report,

That they have read with pleasure the Essay of Mr Woodbridge upon this subject, and do fully concur with him, that Music as a branch of Common Education is hereafter to become a powerful auxiliary in the formation of our national character; that important moral and religious principles may thus be taught with a more pleasing and lasting effect than in any other manner.

The Committee are convinced that our characters are moulded by the little every day events of life, more than by occasional important occurrences; that human nature is so constituted in regard to the reception of moral truths, that every event, however trifling in itself, may prove the turning point of our character. From this, they conclude, that the constant inculcation of good sentiments through so delightful a medium as Music, cannot fail of producing a vast amount of good.

While singing is a recreation, it is moral in its tendency, and helps to preserve health, so that it constitutes an amusement not only not injurious, but positively beneficial.

The practicability of the object appears to have been fully tested in Germany and Switzerland, and the Committee would here remark, that they believe the "*hob-goblin* stories" of Germany have been principally handed down through the medium of songs; and that the national characteristic of belief in demonology is kept alive and increased by the tone of their ancient songs. Here, then, we have an important lesson to learn; if this object has been attained in other countries, and if it may be made productive of much good in this country, why not adopt it at once?

The Committee are happy to announce the commencement of a Music School, this day, in this city, on the Pestalozzian plan. Schools of this character have for some time been in successful operation in Boston and Philadelphia.

We are aware that the Americans, as a nation, do not exhibit that taste and execution in music which are found elsewhere. But this we attribute to neglect in education; and hope soon to see so palpable a blot effaced from our national character, and to enjoy a new source of delightful amusement and of permanent good.

The Committee are pleased to learn that an Academy of Music has been formed in Boston for the purpose of publishing a work on vocal music, for the use of common schools, and to devise ways and means for the promotion of a more general knowledge of music. We recommend that a committee be appointed to confer with the Boston Academy on this subject.

On behalf of the Committee,

R. S. Kissam.

The Committee on amendments to the Constitution reported to amend it, so as to extend the number of the additional members of the Executive committee to be appointed by the Lyceum, to twenty; which was accepted.

Mr Dwight, Corresponding Secretary, presented a communication from Senor Juan Rodriguez, a representative in the Congress of Mexico, giving a sketch of the state of education in that republic, which, as time had not permitted its translation from the Spanish language since its receipt on Saturday afternoon, was not read. A

tter was also presented from Senor Manuel Gomez Pedraza, Presi-nt of the United Mexican States, introducing the author as a cor-spondent of the Lyceum; and one from Senor Rodriguez, express-g his satisfaction at being selected by the President for this object, interesting to himself.

On motion, it was

Resolved, That the thanks of the Lyceum be presented to the ntlemen from whom these communications have been received, ith a request that they will continue their correspondence.

Dr Russ presented some interesting and valuable information in gard to the progress made in apparatus and methods for the in-ruction of the Blind, particularly in the N. York Institution: and motion of Mr Woodbridge, the thanks of the Lyceum were pre-nted to Dr Russ, with a request that he would furnish a copy of his atements in writing, for the use of the Lyceum.

On motion of Mr Holbrook, it was

Resolved, That the American Lyceum recommend to all Lyceums d schools, regular contributions, either in money or effort, in favor some benevolent object.

Prof. Dewey offered the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Lyceum be presented to Mr oodbridge for his attention and liberality in regard to the publica-n of the proceedings of the last annual meeting, under the embar-ssing circumstances produced by the failure of the plan then pro-sed for the collection of funds; and that he be requested to con-nue to publish the proceedings in the Annals.

Resolved, That the Lyceum recommend to the attention and sup-rt of Lyceums and schools, the valuable publication of Mr Wood-idge, the 'Annals of Education and Instruction,' and also the Family Lyceum,' published by Mr Holbrook.

On motion of Mr Holbrook, it was

Resolved, That one or more agents be appointed, to promote the jects of the Lyceum, as soon as sufficient funds shall be obtained r their support.

On motion of Mr Disosway, it was

Resolved, That the Lyceum having had opportunity to examine e splendid work of John J. Audubon, Esq., on the Ornithology of e United States, deposited in the Library of Columbia College; and ing impressed with the value of the labors of that learned and en-rprising naturalist to our country, and the importance that he ould receive such support as is necessary to encourage and reward s exertions; take pleasure in recommending his objects and his ork to the friends of useful knowledge in all parts of the U. States.

On motion of Dr R. S. Kissam, a communication on Geology, re-ived from Dr Comstock, a corresponding secretary, was re-rred to the Executive committee; and on motion of Mr Dwight, l essays yet unread were referred to the same committee.

MONDAY AFTERNOON, MAY 6.

The Lyceum met in the Circuit Court room, in the City Hall. President Cushing in the chair, and Mr Disosway, Secretary.

Mr Woodbridge, from the Committee on the manual labor system presented the following report, which was accepted: —

The Committee are convinced from personal observation as well as from the facts presented to the Lyceum at its present meeting, that the combination of Manual labor with study, is a means, not only of promoting health, and securing vigor of constitution, but also of rendering intellectual efforts more easy and energetic; and of regulating the passions, both of body and mind. They would therefore propose, for the adoption of the Lyceum the following resolution:

'*Resolved*, In the opinion of this Lyceum,

'1, That no system of Education is complete, which does not provide for the vigor of the body, as well as the cultivation of the mind, and the purity of the heart.

'2, That the combination of Manual Labor with study is not only important, as the means of promoting health, but that it is also calculated to invigorate the mind for intellectual labor, and to aid in regulating the feelings and restraining the passions of youth, which are so often excited by a sedentary life.

'3, That the acquisition of some mechanical employment in early life is desirable to every individual, as a means of relaxation and health, as a resource in case of difficulty, and especially as a means of rendering labor respectable in the eyes of all, and of promoting mutual regard and sympathy between the different portions of society in a republican government.

'4, That in view of these facts, the Lyceum earnestly recommend to parents to secure the benefits of manual labor to their children from the earliest period practicable, as a part of domestic education.

'5, That the introduction of manual labor in those institutions for education in which children are separated from their parents, would be of essential benefit to the wealthy in promoting health and improvement; and to the indigent, in enabling them to procure an education at an expense greatly reduced — and that the Lyceum regard the establishment of such schools as an important and desirable branch of a system of national education for our country.'

In behalf of the Committee,

W. C. WOODBRIDGE.

Mr Woodbridge presented to the Lyceum a complete set of the Annals of Education, for which the thanks of the Society were voted to him.

Mr Light presented a report on the Boston Young Men's Society, for which the thanks of the Lyceum were returned, and the Secretary was requested to inform that Society of the pleasure they feel in the establishment of such associations.

The following is the report:

The formation of the Boston Young Men's Society originated about six months since, through the exertions of a few gentlemen who met for religious purposes. Its objects are, the moral and intellectual improvement of its members, together with that of the young men generally, and the

promotion of acquaintance between the young men of Boston and those from different parts of the country who take up their residence in the city.

The plan has succeeded beyond the warmest anticipations of its projectors. It has gained considerable popularity, and promises to be a powerful auxiliary in the promotion of sound morality and general improvement among this important calss of the community.

The present number of members is about 400;* and is constantly increasing.

The society has purchased a well-selected library, which cost about $1000, and has rented part of a building, which it has fitted up for the library, reading room, room for meetings, and other purposes.

The principal Exercises are lectures and discussions of reports of committees on subjects relating to public morals and general improvement, which have thus far been well sustained.

An essay on the study of Physiology, as a branch of general education, by Dr William A. Alcott of Boston, was read by Mr Woodbridge; and on motion of Mr Woodbridge, it was

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Lyceum a knowledge of the formation and changes of the human body is highly important to all, and especially to parents and teachers; and that the study of Physiology ought to form a part of the course of education wherever it is practicable.

Resolved, That a premium of $300 be offered for the best text book on Physiology, for the use of schools, to be published under the direction of the Lyceum, which shall be presented before March 1, 1834; this premium to be exchanged, if the author previously desire it, for a premium of $50 with the right of publication.

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be directed to select four individuals, one from each of the four professions, viz: Medicine, Law, Theology and Education, to examine and decide on the works presented, and to give such public notice of the arrangements they may find advisable.

On motion of Mr Woodbridge it was

Resolved, That Mr Light be requested to prepare a report on the various Young Men's Societies in Boston, for publication under the direction of the Executive Committee, and that all those who have made verbal statements be requested to furnish written statements to the same Committee. †

On motion of Mr Dwight, it was

Resolved, That the Executive Committee have power to publish the proceedings of this Lyceum. In consequence of the late hour at which the subject of election was brought forward,

Resolved, That an election now be held for President of the Ly-

* The number of members has lately increased to between 500 and 600.

† Mr L. will probably furnish an account of these societies, but we have no room for it in the present number.

ceum for the ensuing year, by ballot; and that the other officers of the Lyceum appointed the last year, together with those added by them, be continued until another election, agreeably to the article of the constitution on this subject. Whereupon President Duer of Columbia College was unanimously elected President, and Professor Griscom of Rhode Island, and President Cushing, were chosen Corresponding Secretaries.

Mr John P. Ayres of Nashville, Tenn. presented a letter of introduction from President Lindsey, one of the Corresponding Secretaries, and letters from other gentlemen, being bearer of an apparatus, and printed accounts of methods for the Instruction of the Blind, invented by William Thompson, Esq. of Tennessee; which were referred to a committee consisting of Dr Russ, and Messrs Dwight and Disosway.

On motion of Mr Woodbridge,

Resolved, That the thanks of the Lyceum be presented to the Society for the promotion of Manual Labor institutions, and to their agent, Mr Weld, for their interesting report; and that they be assured of the cordial sympathy and coöperation of this Lyceum in the object of their association.

President Cushing having presented some valuable verbal information to the Lyceum concerning the state of education in Virginia,

On motion of Mr Disosway,

Resolved, That President Cushing be requested to furnish to the Executive Committee a written account of the state of education in Virginia, and the means devised for the diffusion of knowledge.

The publications of the Lyceum now on hand, were, on motion, ordered to be delivered to the Executive Committee for distribution.

According to the amendment of the Constitution, authorized by the Lyceum, the following gentlemen were added to the Executive Committee:

J. Kearney Rodgers, M. D.; John Durbin, Esq; Abraham Halsey; James Donaldson; Prof. McVickar; Prof. Renwick; G. W. Morris; P. G. Stuyvesant; W. B. Lawrence; Prof. Vethake; and John D. Russ, M. D.

The Lyceum unanimously adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Lyceum be presented to the board of Aldermen for the use of their Hall.

The following resolution was then laid on the table, on motion of Mr Woodbridge, for the consideration of the next annual meeting of the Lyceum:

Resolved, That as a standing order of the Lyceum, the Committee of nomination be requested to prepare printed copies of the list of officers of the Lyceum, nominated by them, so soon as the same shall be accepted by the Lyceum, to be furnished to each member, before the election.

The minutes were then read and adopted, and the Lyceum adjourned.

following is a list of officers of the American Lyceum for suing year.

sident — William A. Deur, Esq, President of Columbia College.

Presidents — 1st. Alexander Proudfit, D. D., Salem, N. Y.; obert Vaux, Philadelphia; 3d. Hon. Edward Everett, Boston; Thomas Grimke, Charlestown, S. C; 5th. Philip Lindsley, Nashville, Tenn.

ording Secretary — William B. Kinney, Newark, N. J.

asurer — William Forrest, N. Y.

responding Secretaries — 1st. Theodore Dwight, jr, New York; L. Comstock, M. D., Connecticut; 3d. Josiah Holbrook, Boston, 4th. Rev. Timothy Flint, Cincinnati, Ohio; 5th. Professor J. M. vant, Illinois; 6th. Professor Parker Cleaveland, Maine; 7th. 3. O. Peers, Kentucky; 8th. Thomas P. Jones, M. D., D. C.; 9th. sor Amos Eaton, M. D., N. Y.; 10th. Alva Woods, D. D., ma; 11th. Professor John Griscom, Providence, R. I.; 12th. ent Cushing, Hampden Sidney College, Virg.

litional Members of the Executive Committee — Professor Olm- Yale College; Jonathan D. Steele, Esq, N. Y.; S. H. Pen- n, M. D., Newark, N. J.; Seth P. Staples, Esq, N. Y; Profes- Smith Rogers, Washington College, Ct.; J. Kearney Rodgers, ; Professor J. Durbin, N. Y.; A. P. Halsey, Esq, N. Y.; Donaldson, Esq, N. Y.; Professor McVickar, Columbia Col- Professor James Renwick, N. Y.; Wm. B. Lawrence, N. Y; sor Vethake, N. Y. University; John D. Russ, M. D., N. Y.

III. — Juvenile Population of the United States.

RIOTISM, and philanthropy, and christian benevolence are in every part of our country, to promote its intellectual, litical, and moral improvement. It is a problem, ever re- , on whom shall they seek to operate? Where can most e done, and most permanently? Shall they endeavor to legislators to influence the public, or engage public opin- directing legislators? Shall they attempt to act upon our e assemblies, or our schools, or our churches? Shall our tions, and our writers, and editors, address themselves to the the poor — to the educated, or the ignorant, — to the few, many — to the old or the young? This problem must be by a combined proportion of the facility of action, and mbers to be influenced.

class of community ought indeed to be neglected, no post

left unoccupied. But in reference to the first question, the conclusion is more and more settled in the minds of the most intelligent and faithful laborers for the improvement of man that, whether in science, or morals, or religion, the most successful efforts are those made upon the young. The mind is not only most susceptible of ideas and impressions at this period, but the impressions of our youth have a permanency and depth which can never belong to those received in subsequent life. It is a consideration of not less importance, that it is the only period in our country, when the mind is sufficiently free from the cares and perplexities of life, to receive new impressions. It is, in our view, a national error, that we enter upon active life before the mind or the body are matured, and almost shut the door to improvement while we are still but half prepared to be men and citizens. We are misled by the immediate success which results from scanty materials; we assume an amount of responsibility and labor, which requires the full strength of well formed manhood to endure, at a period when we have not attained manhood; and thus add to the necessary difficulties of life, all those which arise from our ignorance or unskilfulness. To act upon those who are thus involved in the whirl of business, is like writing upon the moving sands of the desert. In contrast to all this, the young, on the other hand, are like flowers opening to the sun, living only to receive impressions, eager to acquire new ideas, and ready to exercise new powers in every mode adapted to their age.

But we have felt no small interest in another element of this calculation — the relative numbers of the respective portions of society, as indicated by our census. To ascertain this, we have collected into one view the following account of the inhabitants of the United States under twenty years of age, and the results fully indicate, that he who would operate on the largest part of the community, must operate upon the young. [*See the Table.*]

We are told that in other countries the persons above fortyfive years of age, form nearly a fourth part, or twentyfive per cent of the whole population. In our country, on the other hand, they amounted in 1810, in some States, only to seven per cent, and in none to more than seventeen per cent of the whole population. In 1830, the number above 50, the age adopted in place of fortyfive, amounted only to 83 per cent, or one in twelve of the whole number of inhabitants. In the same year the number under 20 exceeds one half of the population, and the number under 15 amounts to one third.

The distribution of our youthful population is by no means equal. In the northern populous States, the proportion under 15 is much less than in the southern and western States. In New England,

TABLE OF THE JUVENILE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES IN 1830.

	Whole white Population.	Under five years of age.	From five to ten years.	Pr ct. white pop.	Whole No. under ten years.	Pr ct. white pop.	From 10 to 15 years.	Whole No. under 15 years.	Pr ct. white pop.	From 5 to 15 years.	Pr ct. white pop.
Maine,	398,263	66,524	56,418	14.1	122,942	30.8	49,589	172,431	43.3	106,007	26.6
New Hampshire,	268,721	37,966	34,311	12.7	72,277	27	32,262	104,539	38.8	70,228	26
Massachusetts,	603,359	80,177	70,525	11.7	150,702	25	68,005	218,707	36	138,530	23
Rhode Island,	93,621	13,356	11,428	12.2	24,784	26.4	10,613	35,397	37.8	22,041	23.5
Connecticut,	289,603	37,303	34,834	12	72,137	25	34,363	106,500	36.7	69,197	23.8
Vermont,	279,776	43,034	33,038	11.8	81,172	29	34,467	115,689	41.3	67,505	24
	1,933,343	278,360	240,554	12.7	524,014	27.4	229,299	753,213	39	473,508	24.9
New York,	1,868,061	309,945	270,155	14.4	580,100	31	233,689	813,789	43.5	503,884	31
New Jersey,	300,266	49,008	41,683	13.8	90,691	30	38,012	128,703	42.8	79,695	26.5
Pennsylvania,	1,309,900	229,800	188,918	14.5	418,718	32	162,462	581,180	45	351,380	26.8
Delaware,	57,605	9,391	8,110	14	17,501	30	7,573	25,073	43.5	15 683	27.4
Maryland,	291,108	46,093	38,131	13	84,224	29	35,213	119.437	41	73,344	25
	4,326,940	644,237	546,917	12.5	191,234	27.5	476,949	1,668,182	38.5	1,023,986	23.5
Virginia,	694,310	128,204	101,769	14.6	229,973	33	85,223	315,196	45	186,992	27
N. Carolina,	472,843	90,524	70,214	14.8	160,738	34	59,369	220,107	46.5	129,583	27.4
S. Carolina,	257,863	48,823	39,302	15.25	88,125	34	32,129	120,254	46.6	71.431	27.6
	1,425,016	267,551	211,285	14.1	478,836	33.7	176,721	655,557	46	388,006	27.2
Georgia,	296,806	63,985	46,299	15.5	110,284	37	36,572	146,856	49.5	82,871	27.8
Alabama,	190,406	44,104	30,283	15.9	74,387	39	23,221	97,608	51.7	53,504	28
Mississippi,	70,443	15,237	10,737	15.2	25,974	36.8	8,760	34,734	49	19,497	27.6
Louisiana,	89 231	15,768	12,595	14	28,363	31.8	10,274	38,637	43	22,869	25.7
Tennessee,	535,746	114,975	88,341	16.4	203.316	38	69,600	272,916	51	157,941	29.5
Kentucky,	517,787	104,951	80 512	15.5	185,463	35.8	66,419	251,882	48.6	146,931	28.3
Ohio,	928,329	186,284	146,541	15.8	332,825	35.8	112,457	445,282	48	258 998	27.8
Indiana,	389,399	77,285	56,005	14.2	133,290	34.2	43,944	177,234	45.5	99,949	25.6
Illinois,	155,061	36,263	24,753	16	60,016	38.7	19,270	79,286	51	44,023	28.4
Missouri,	114,795	26,092	18,694	16.3	44.786	40	14,263	59,049	51.4	32,957	28
	3,288,023	684,944	514,760	15.5	1,191,704	36	413,789	1,603,484	48.7	919,540	27.7
Territories,	102.965	19,822	14,220	13.8	34,042	33	11.841	45,883	44.5	26,061	25
TOTAL,	10,526,248	1,894,914	1,532,816	14½	3,427,730	32½	1,308,590	4,736,320	45	2,841,406	27

with the exception of Vermont and Maine, it does not exceed 38 per cent, while, in the west and south it averages 50 per cent. It is a striking fact that Louisiana, which is in effect a long settled country, although located among new States, differs from all around it, and resembles those usually ranked as old States, in this respect.

It must be recollected that in Louisiana as in New Hampshire and Maine, the population has been long established and thickly settled, on a portion of the territory, while a large portion remains entirely unoccupied. This circumstance would lead us from the mere inspection of an ordinary table to suppose the population much less dense than it really is.

The number from 5 to 15, which is the age most usual for our common schools, falls a little short of one fourth in the oldest States. In all the other States it exceeds one fourth, amounting in the average to 27 per cent. In New York it amounts to 31 per cent, and in a few other States to 29 per cent.

It would appear, therefore, that if we confine education to the narrowest limits which can be admitted in a prosperous country, and under a popular government, and suppose no instruction provided for any but those between 5 and 15 years of age, the schools for a State should be sufficient for one fourth part of the population, and in some States, to more than this. If Infant Schools be considered as a part of this provision, they must be sufficient for more than one third of the population. If we include the whole number under 20, schools must be provided to one half of our population. If we attempt to continue instruction only for one half of those between 15 and 20, the whole number under a course of instruction in our country, ought not to be less than 40 per cent, or one to every $2\frac{1}{2}$ of our population.

The necessities of the western States, which are universally admitted to be so urgent, are rendered still more obvious by observing this census. While the means of education are far less ample than in the northern States, the number to be taught is one third larger.

The difficulty of giving instruction is also increased in the southern and western States by the more scattered state of the population. If the average number of pupils to a single instructor be estimated at 50, a school could be collected in the northern States on every four square miles, so that the most distant children would be little more than a mile from it. — But in the southern and western States the mode of settlement would require from 11 to 14 square miles to supply such a school, and would place a portion of the children at the distance of 3 or 4 miles from the centre of the district. — In order to bring the means of instruction within reasonable distance of each pupil, it would be necessary,

therefore, in these States, that there should be double the number of schools and teachers, which are requisite in the northern States. How few are supplied, even with an equal proportion, is too well known to all who are conversant with the state of our country. — In New York it is found necessary to provide schools for more than one in four of the population. But in Kentucky, which is probably better supplied than most other States at the West, only ten of the most favored counties have from one third to one fourth of their children at school, while ten of the least favored, have only one in every 15, making an average in the whole State of only one to 9. This would leave but one third of the whole number from 5 to 15, under instruction.

In view of these facts, the eminent importance of *Sunday Schools* in these portions of our country must be obvious to every one. Still it must be remembered that these valuable institutions lose half their efficacy, in a population uninstructed in other respects, that they should be regarded only as the first of a series of efforts, to supply a complete course of education. It will also be obvious, that a population, thus scattered, cannot for many years be supplied with adequate means of instruction; and especially in a ratio corresponding to their rapid increase, without the aid of the *circulating schools*, which have been employed with so much success in Scotland and Wales.

But every plan of national improvement must be adapted to the state of things at the period when it is to be in full operation, rather than to the circumstances at the moment of its conception. In a country whose population increases as rapidly as ours, no such plan is complete, which does not embrace in itself the elements of continued and indefinite expansion, and this with no ordinary rapidity. Even now the estimates of population in 1830 are imperfect, and before any important project based on them can be fully executed, the foundation on which it rests, is changed, and the demand for efforts and means increased to a degree almost disheartening. Instances of this kind have occurred in the history of some of our charitable institutions; but the friends of benevolent enterprise should not be discouraged or reproached if they fail in obtaining a result, which would have been perfectly attainable in a stationary population. It is, however, of great importance to ascertain the rate of increase; and the extent to which this affects those who are the objects of our plans for improvement.

The true measure of the present natural increase of our population, is the number of persons under ten years in 1830, for these are obviously the only persons added by birth since the census of 1820. The number in 1830 was 3,426,792, so that about 44 per cent were added by birth to the existing population of 1820,

during the ten years following. If this scale of increase be supposed to continue, we shall have a national increase during the ten years from 1830 to 1840, of 463,146 every year, 39,428 every month, or 1268 daily; a fact as appalling to those, who adopt the desolating theory of Malthus, as it is cheering to those who, with Everett, consider the whole as so much added to our natural capital of labor, and skill, and power, and happiness;* and above all, to those who see this daily demonstrated, in our prosperous, happy country.

This, however, is not the measure by which we are to estimate the means to be provided for the instruction of our youth. We must resort to a direct comparison of this juvenile portion of our population at different periods, in order to learn how far our present efforts must be increased, and our plans extended, in order to meet our future wants.

As the census, previous to 1830, includes only those under ten, and between ten and sixteen years of age, we are compelled to calculate the number under fifteen, by deducting one sixth from those between ten and sixteen, in order to compare the ages with those estimated in the last census.

It appears from a comparison made in this manner, that while the population under fifteen in 1810, only amounted to 2,804,263, it had increased in 1830, to 4,768,320. The actual increase, therefore, of this portion of the population, was 1,932,368, or 68 per cent, of the population of 1810, in twenty years. The number in 1820, estimated in the same manner, amounted to 3,641,039, showing an increase of 846,776 in ten years, or 30 per cent. And the subsequent increase for ten years, from 1820 to 1830, amounts to 1,095,281, or in the same proportional per cent to the population in 1820. This would indicate an annual increase of 83,567 during the first period, or 232 every day. During the second period, the annual increase would be 109,528, and the daily increase 300, if the increase continues at the same rate. The juvenile population now amounts to 5,065,304, and is advancing at the rate of 334 every day, 10,174 every month, and 122,089 every year. There is here no room for mistake, and it is certain that we cannot even maintain our present state of instruction, unless we have a proportionate increase of schools and teachers. If we allow thirty pupils to a school, which will be indispensable in order to bring them within the reach of our whole population, it will require the provision of eleven new schools and teachers every day, and of 4000 every year.

The interesting facts before us suggest many other considerations

* See 'New Ideas on Population,' by A. H. Everett; a simple, but, as it seems to us, unanswerable reply, to a system which would make infanticide a virtue, and charity a crime.

of deep interest, in reference to various classes of our population; but we wish to leave this topic in its full weight on the minds of our readers. The future welfare of our nation, our salvation from the flood of evils which threaten to overwhelm us, is to be secured, —not in our public assemblies, or our halls of legislation. They indeed may check in some measure the current of evil, but the effect will be but momentary, unless the sources be dried up in our *schools*. Our *statesmen* and our *orators* may do much to sway the public mind for a given purpose; but our *teachers* must prepare the materials for them to act upon—they must give to the intellect of a people that power, and to their feelings that direction, which is necessary for the public good — or the toils of the statesman and the eloquence of the orator will be in vain.

While the truth of these remarks is so obvious as to render them almost unnecessary, it is equally obvious that our means of education, although superior to those of most countries in the world, are still far below our necessities as a nation of electors and rulers.

We need more numerous schools than other countries; for our children amount to 45 per cent of our whole population; while in older countries, like England and Wales, they do not exceed 39 per cent. We need the best schools; for we must prepare them not merely to earn a subsistence, but to act as members of a government. What then are the facts? What is our state?

The whole number of children, exclusive of New England and New York, is 1,840,000; which, at the usual rate of increase, would now amount to 2,000,000. If we suppose the whole as destitute as Pennsylvania and Kentucky, each of which have only about one in three of their children at school, (and this, we suspect, is by no means an unfavorable statement, on the average, for the States south and west of New York,) it will follow, that there are not less than 1,400,000 destitute of common instruction! If we add to this the large number of teachers and schools, even at the north, utterly unfitted to improve the mind and cultivate the heart — if we recollect how many parents find their children rather worse than better for their attendance at common schools — we have a sad picture of the state and prospects of our juvenile population. However safe such a state may be under an arbitrary government, to us, it is fraught with danger.

Yet we beg every friend of education to remember, that to maintain ourselves, even in this state, we need an addition of four thousand schools and teachers every year, *for which we have no provision*, either public or private, legislative or benevolent. We again make our appeal to patriotism, and philanthropy, and christian benevolence, and ask, how amidst the multiplied efforts of the day, they can forget the importance of an AMERICAN TEACHERS' EDUCATION SOCIETY, whose sole object shall be to prepare and send forth a host of laborers, for this wide and extending field.

Art. IV. — Machinery of Education.

[Communicated for the Annals of Education.]

This is an age of labor saving machines. By them, the power of man is increased several hundred fold. The surplus time, which, in the rudest state of society, is very great, after the ordinary and real wants of the body are supplied, is, by bringing the elements of nature and the principles of science to our aid, increased to nearly a thousand per cent. And how is this surplus time appropriated? This question is nearly answered in three words: viz. *idleness*, *extravagance* and *vice*. How ought it to be appropriated? The answer is in two words: to *mind* and *heart* — intellectual and moral improvement.

But it may be said a part of this machinery is for moving mind and heart — for producing intellectual and moral improvement. That is true: and so is an improved plough designed to furnish a larger supply of bread, to feed the hungry, and an improved loom to supply more yards of cloth to clothe the naked; and yet in the midst of improved ploughs and looms, we sometimes see more suffering with hunger and cold, than before these improvements were made.

The machinery of education may also defeat the object which it is intended to promote. It may impair the efforts which it is intended to strengthen; weaken the intellect which it is designed to invigorate, and chill the heart which it was intended to warm. It may lead the mind and heart to wait to be acted upon, rather than te exert their own powers of action. By depending upon the machinery without, they will be liable to forget and neglect the machinery within.

These evils are felt to some extent, already. The extent to which they are threatened, is truly alarming. We have much reason to fear that they will give to the world a generation of weak minds, notwithstanding the boasted intelligence and the general diffusion of knowledge, which is certainly making rapid progress upon our globe.

What are the facilities of education which have already been so abused as to defeat the object which they are intended to promote, or which threaten still greater evils than they have already produced? To answer this question in detail, would require more time than we have at our command. The answer must therefore be brief and embrace but a few particulars. The first facility in education which we shall mention, as productive of some evil with much good, is the *division of labor* in teaching. We are fully

convinced that in some institutions, where the professors and teachers are numerous, they unconsciously take the work out of the pupils' hands — they perform the work which ought to be done by the pupils themselves. It is quite evident, that when a student spends most of his time in going from one lecture room or one teacher to another, and in sitting as a passive recipient of instruction, he can have but little time and less disposition to exert his own powers for accumulating knowledge and invigorating his mind. Who ever heard of a scholar made by lectures, or by teachers in any form? Has not every scholar who has yet appeared in the world become such by his own efforts, — by personal application — by the patient and persevering use of the machinery within him? Who ever heard of hereditary learning, or of ideas manufactured like cotton cloth, — by steam or water power? The history of American colleges for the last ten or twenty years, fully proves, that students who perform the most mental labor for themselves, and not those who hear the greatest number of professors, make the strongest and most valuable men. A *large library* is another facility in education, which, by abuse, is liable to do much injury; which *has* done much injury to students. A great reader, and especially a miscellaneous reader, is seldom a good scholar or a useful man. He may have a large mass of materials collected, but he has no power to use them, either for himself or his fellow men. His mind is a mere lumber-yard, and himself an intellectual miser—a blank in the beautiful and harmonious creation around him.

Apparatus for visible illustrations is liable to be so abused, as to produce evil rather than good — to check, rather than elicit effort — to impair, rather than invigorate the mind. No one doubts the value of a globe or a map in teaching geography: but it is principally useful in animating the mind to greater efforts and further study of the surface of the earth, as presented in nature itself. Experiments in chemistry, when properly applied, may act both as a stimulus and an aid in studying the great and wonderful laws in chemical science; but if witnessed as a dazzling sight, or a brilliant show, without recognising the principles they are designed to illustrate — they may amuse, but they cannot instruct — they may elate, but they cannot dignify or strengthen the mind.

A cone cut into its several sections, viz. the circle, ellipse, triangle, parabola and hyperbola, may render to the pupil the most important aid in getting clear and distinct impressions of the elementary and fundamental principles of conic sections: but if it leads him to conclude, that the whole science on the subject consists in cutting a cone in five different ways, or otherwise prevents investigation and patient study, he is injured, and not benefited.

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A cube and the various species of parallelopipeds, may be presented to a child, very much to his aid, in getting a clear and distinct idea of the elementary principles of solid measure; and may dispel darkness from every step of his future progress, in the mensuration of solids, whether of wood, timber, bricks, walls, or of cisterns, casks, bins or any other kinds of containing vessels. The light which they thus throw upon the subject at the outset of the pupil's progress, and the aid which they render in his future investigations, may and ought to impart to him both courage and strength in grappling with the most abstruse and difficult principles of the science of geometry. But if by the abuse of them, they lead the pupil to suppose, that all geometrical science consists in measuring a few blocks, they check effort and weaken intellect.

The *Infant School System* has, by abuse, produced some evil with much good. It is the opposite extreme to our common school system, which produces some good and much evil. The common school, by withdrawing the child from everything which has a tendency to excite and invigorate the mind, too often cramps its energies, and impairs its independence. The infant school, calculating principally upon excitement, surrounds the child with pictures, amuses it with stories, and soon brings the mind into such a state as not to be able to act at all, except when stimulated with external machinery. The one is hence calculated to benumb, the other to dissipate the mind. The proper course undoubtedly lies between them. A portion of the infant school machinery is needed to awaken interest and encourage effort. A portion of the common school system is needed to cultivate patience, and to give the power of long continued effort.

The *picture system* which is so much the order of the present day, undoubtedly produces some good, but it must unavoidably produce immense evil. Children, and adults too, are coming to feel that they cannot read a book or a paper which is not filled with 'pretty pictures.' But who ever heard of a person acquiring a strong or well disciplined mind by looking at pictures? Is it not evident that stimulants of this kind produce an effect upon the intellect and heart, resembling that of alcohol upon the body? When such excitements become necessary for intellectual effort, the mind does not move by its own inherent power, but by the influence of foreign or extraneous stimulants, and is consequently in a diseased state.

If then the facilities for acquiring knowledge are sometimes carried so far as to defeat the object they are intended to promote, it becomes a serious and most important question, how far they can be introduced for the advantage of the great cause of education. On that question, it may perhaps be safe in nearly every

case, to be governed by one principle; which is, to aim at encouraging and invigorating effort. All the facilities, and all the aid a mind can receive to induce and enable it to increase its own efforts, will probably prove salutary: the moment a mind begins to depend upon the facilities afforded it, rather than upon itself, its efforts are impaired, and its growth checked. A distinguished teacher, and president of a college, defined genius to be 'the power of making efforts.' The most distinguished statesman of our republic, once very modestly replied to some inquiries made by a friend respecting himself, that if he was superior to most others in anything, it was in his power of fixing and confining his mind to a given subject for a long time. In other words, in his making vigorous and long continued efforts. The same remark was long since made by Sir Isaac Newton. This power is undoubtedly the essence of intellectual energy, wherever it is found. Of course, whatever tends to give a mind that power over itself, is calculated to answer the legitimate and highest purposes of education. Whatever tends to draw away the mind from itself, and to lead it to depend upon foreign aid, whether it be in a multiplicity of teachers, voluminous libraries, scientific or illustrative apparatus, beautiful pictures, or fictitious or real stories, can hardly fail to defeat the great purposes of education — to impair the intellects they are intended to strengthen, and to dissipate the minds they are designed to sober and dignify.

A few cases will be sufficient to show the importance of some aid to the young mind, particularly, in obtaining clear conceptions of the elementary principles of the subjects presented for its examination. A gentleman, not long since, took up an apple to show a niece, sixteen years of age, who had studied geography several years, something about the shape and motion of the earth. She looked at him for a few minutes, and said with much earnestness; 'Why, uncle, you don't mean that the earth really turns round, do you?' He replied, 'But did not you learn that several years ago?' 'Yes, Sir,' she replied, 'I *learned* it, but I never *knew* it before.' Now, it is obvious that this young lady had been laboring several years on the subject of geography, and groping in almost total darkness, because some kind friend did not show her at the outset, by a globe or an apple, that 'the earth really turned round.'

It is related by Miss Edgeworth, that a gentleman, while attending an examination of a school, where every question was answered with the greatest promptness, put some questions to the pupils which were not exactly the same as found in the book. After numerous ready answers to their teacher on the subject of geography, he asked one of the pupils where Turkey was. She answered rather hesitatingly, '*In the yard, with the poultry.*'

Three or four years ago, a gentleman sold a right of some water for carrying a mill. The quantity first agreed upon, was a stream which could be discharged through a two-inch tube. When asked what he should charge for the quantity which would pass through a four-inch tube, he answered, twice the price of the other. The purchaser of course obtained four times the water for twice the money, as a tax upon the seller's ignorance; which a glance at a diagram might have removed.

It was stated in one of the most respectable newspapers in Boston* a few days since, that London was seven miles long and five miles wide; and allowing for its irregular shape, was '*eighteen miles square.*' It was meant that it contained eighteen square miles. If the editor, when a school boy, had glanced at a simple diagram, he would have learned, that in eighteen miles square, there are 324 square miles.

Mistakes equally gross with those above, are occurring by thousands every day, and all for the want of a familiar illustration of the elementary and fundamental principles of the common practical sciences. How few in our schools, or among farmers and mechanics, have a clear and distinct idea of what is meant by a cubic or solid inch, or foot, or mile! And until a person has a clear conception of that original elementary idea in solids, how can he move one step on the subject, except by groping in midnight darkness? And how is he to gain a conception of that idea, except by some familiar practical illustration?

Examples might be mentioned, almost without number, of wasted strength, and lost effort, both by children and adults, from the want of clear conceptions of a few elementary principles, which they might obtain by a glance even, at some appropriate illustrations; but we cannot add.

We have time only to remark, that the machinery of education is, in our opinion, important and necessary to encourage and invigorate effort, by giving the abstract principles light, and interest, and truth; and while used as a help merely for the operations and success of the more curious machinery of intellect and heart, it produces good; but the moment it is used as a dependence, it produces evil. And it is deeply to be regretted that, like most other good things, both in the external and internal world, it is often so abused as to become an evil, rather than a blessing.

*We believe this statement was originally derived from some *foreign* magazine; — perhaps Frazer's.

Art. V. — Boston Academy of Music.

(*First Annual Report.*)

In the summer of 1826, several gentlemen of Boston, who had ben engaged for some time, in efforts to introduce improvements in ference to Sacred Music, became acquainted with the views and ans of Mr Lowell Mason, since president of the Handel and Haydn ociety, and editor of their collection of music, but at that time sident in Savannah. During a visit to this city he was induced to liver a lecture on church music, which was heard with great in-rest; was published soon after, and passed to a second edition. fter Mr Mason's return to Savannah, measures were immediately ken to obtain his aid and direction in the execution of their plans; oposals were made to him to remove to Boston, which were finally cepted, and he arrived here with his family in July, 1827.

Even at this early stage of the enterprise, it was the ultimate design those engaged in it, to form an association whose object should to devise and execute extended measures for the cultivation and provement of sacred music. While this plan has been kept steadily view, constant efforts have been made to cultivate musical talents, improve musical taste, and to awaken the interest of the com-unity upon the subject, by the instruction of choirs, adult schools, id juvenile classes, under the direction of Mr Mason.

These measures were in progress in 1830, when a lecture on Vocal usic was delivered before the American Institute of Instruction,* ustrated by the performance of Mr Mason's pupils, which opened to ose interested in this subject, a wider and more important field of eration than they had before contemplated. From this lecture it ap-ars, that in Switzerland and Germany, vocal music is one of the anches of common school instruction, and that it is there generally nsidered as necessary as reading and writing, and is regarded as an dispensable qualification for an instructor. In consequence of such neral and early attention to the subject, this important portion of blic worship can be suitably performed by the whole congregation. ut in addition to this advantage, music of a chaste, and elevating oral character has been introduced to a great extent, and with the ppiest effect, especially among children and youth, as the com-mion of the fire-side, and the play-ground. In Switzerland, this especially the case. It was observed that it was the favorite creation of the young, especially of the poor; that it was a cheering mpanion in many of their labors, and a substitute for drinking and ot in their social meetings.

[The Report here contains an extract from the Annals of Educa-on for May, 1833, from p. 197 to 201, describing the state of musi-l instruction in Europe.]

* On Vocal Music as a branch of Education by W. C. Woodbridge. Boston: illiard, Gray, & Co.

Mr. Woodbridge brought with him the work of Nageli and Pfeiffer and Köbler on elementary instruction, the cards for class instruction, prepared for this purpose, and the juvenile music of Nageli and Pfeiffer, together with that collected for the institution at Hofwyl. He communicated the system and the music first to Mr E. Ives, of Hartford, (Conn.) under whose direction the first classes in this country were taught on the new plan, and examinations and concerts held, which demonstrated to the satisfaction of skilful musicians, that the children, even of an infant school, were capable of attainments in scientific and practical music, which had been deemed impossible. The same works were subsequently placed in the hands of Mr Mason, who adopted the system of instruction, and carried it into effect by a course of laborious instruction, given gratuitously to large juvenile classes. The results were fully exhibited in the Juvenile Concerts of 1832 and 1833, to the delight of large audiences. To aid in the extension of juvenile music, a small collection of social and moral songs, chiefly from the German, were published by Messrs Mason and Ives, under the title of the 'Juvenile Lyre,' which has been widely circulated. Two elementary books have been published by Mr Ives, based on the same principles of instruction. Another elementary work is now preparing, by Mr Mason, embracing the system, in a more complete form, with the most recent improvements of the German teachers.

In view of the wide and important field, which is now opened, it was resolved during the last winter, to establish an association which should endeavor to obtain for our country the advantages derived from vocal music in Switzerland and Germany, and should secure the services of competent persons devoted to this object. After some informal consultations, a meeting was held on the 8th of Jan. 1833, and an institution organized under the name of THE BOSTON ACADEMY OF MUSIC.

At a subsequent meeting, a committee was appointed to designate the objects to which the labors of the Academy should be directed.

[The report of this Committee (which we should be glad to insert, did our limits permit,) points out most clearly the wide field before them, and the multitude of objects to be accomplished, in order to place music in its proper rank in our country.]

The Academy can hope to accomplish but few of these objects at once; but in order to commence, as efficiently as possible, a series of efforts for their attainment, the government of the Society divided themselves into a number of Committees, each of which was devoted to some special branch of labor.

In order to avail themselves of the facilities of action afforded by a charter, the Academy subsequently petitioned the legislature of Massachusetts for an act of incorporation. The petition was referred to the Committee on Education, to whom the objects of the Academy were stated; and by their recommendation the Academy was incorporated by the legislature in April, 1833.

The first step taken by the Academy was to engage Mr Mason

relinquish a lucrative situation for the purpose of devoting his hole time to the instruction of classes. The rapidly increasing demand for his labors soon obliged them to elect an associate professor. r Webb, then organist at St Paul's Church, was accordingly appointed this office, — a gentleman whose superior musical talents and education, and his cordial adoption of the new system of instruction, as ell as his elevated views in regard to the objects and style of vocal usic, furnish the best ground for reliance on his aid.

In order to excite the interest and confidence of the public, two uvenile Concerts were held in the spring of 1833, at which the perrmances were exclusively by the pupils of Mr Mason. The repetion of both was called for, and the crowded and attentive audiences ve ample evidence of the satisfaction which was felt.

The committee on juvenile and adult classes have procured conmient rooms, under the Bowdoin Street Church, for the exclusive e of the Academy, and a juvenile class has been formed there nder the direction of Mr Mason, of 400 pupils. They have also gaged the chapel of the Old South church for two afternoons in e week, for a class of 100 pupils, under Mr Webb. These schools e free to all children, no other condition being required of the puils than that they be over seven years of age, and engage to continue the school one year. Mr Webb has also commenced a juvenile hool at Cambridgeport, and Mr Mason has established others at lem and Lynn, containing about 150 pupils each, and an adult ass at Salem of equal size.

But the Academy are particularly gratified with the result of the forts to introduce vocal music as a part of the regular course of struction in schools. It appears from the report of the committee this subject, that the plan was first adopted in the Mount Vernon hool and the Monitorial School of Mr Fowle, both of females, and r Thayer's school for boys, in Chauncey Place, in each of which ere are 100 pupils, who receive instruction twice a week in vocal usic. Instruction is also given by the professors of the Academy the Asylum for the Blind, in the schools of Mr Hayward and iss Raymond, Chestnut St., in Miss Spooner's school in Montgomy Place, and in the Academy at Cambridgeport. The whole numr of the pupils under the care of the Academy exceeds 1500. In these classes and schools deep interest is felt in the subject, and the mode of instruction; and surprise is often expressed, even by ose who are familiar with the ordinary musical instruction, at the mple illustration of subjects which they had never attempted to derstand, and at the exhibition of important principles to which ey were entire strangers. The Academy look with peculiar pleae at these results, as the indication, that in this part of the commuty the value of this acquisition will soon be fully realized, and ery parent will be solicitous to have his children taught vocal muc as a regular branch of education; not merely as an agreeable complishment, much less as a means of attracting admiration, but a valuable exercise for strengthening the lungs of the young, and

guarding them against disease; as an innocent and rational, and at the same time an improving amusement, as a means of cheering and gratifying others; and above all, as a preparation for making the praise of God glorious in families and churches.

In endeavoring to diffuse a knowledge of the simple and admirable method of instruction received from the school of Pestalozzi, the Academy are anxious on the one hand, that it should ultimately be made known to every teacher in our land; but on the other, they feel it highly important that it should not be imperfectly acquired or communicated, that the interest already inspired in this, subject may not be chilled, nor the confidence already felt be disappointed, by the unsuccessful attempts of superficial teachers. They have therefore deferred, as the last step of their progress, a course of instruction for teachers; but they design to establish this, as soon as there is reason to expect a sufficient number of teachers to render it useful.

In reference to publication, it has already been stated that an elementary work is nearly ready for the press, comprising the essential principles of instruction; and this, they trust, in connection with the 'Juvenile Lyre,' will supply the immediate want of teachers, in introducing this branch of instruction, both in musical and literary schools. The professors intend to devote much attention to the preparation of works and collections of music, social and moral, as well as sacred; and the Academy consider it an important object to supply the demand which an increased interest in vocal music may produce, with such as is fitted to elevate the taste and improve the heart, instead of leaving it to be gratified with the songs of 'love and wine,' which are but too common, or with the effeminate and corrupting music of the theatre and the opera.

In order to aid in the accomplishment of these objects, the Academy propose to collect, as speedily as possible, a library of the most valuable works on music; and they are enabled to begin this collection with those brought out by Mr W. C. Woodbridge, on which the previous and proposed publications are founded, — and now presented by him to the Academy.

In reference to public concerts, the Academy feel bound to announce, that they are anxious to have every means taken to avoid exciting the vanity of children by public expressions of applause, or by direct appeals to this passion. They are anxious to inculcate upon them the principle, that this talent, like every other, is to be employed as a means of giving happiness to those around them, and that they are to sing before others for the same motive that they would offer them an entertainment, or any other means of rational pleasure, in accordance with the beautiful maxim of President Dwight; 'The great end of the Creation is happiness, and he that makes a little child happier for half an hour, is so far, a fellow worker with God.' They would lead them to regard it as a *duty*, which they owe in its time and place, and not an exhibition which they are to make, to gain the admiration of their friends, or excite the envy of their companions. The concerts which have been hitherto given, have excited new interest and new confidence in the promotion of

musical education, and they hope, without deleterious effects upon the children.

In considering all the circumstances, the Academy find much reason for encouragement. They have, indeed, only entered the field of their labors; but the success of their efforts, thus far, has surpassed their expectations. It encourages them to believe that they may be able to do something towards the introduction of a new and powerful instrument in educating our youth, and improving our adult population, and in rendering this important part of public worship more worthy of its exalted object, and better fitted to elevate the feelings, and inspire the devotion of Christian assemblies.

As this association does not consist of professional musicians, it differs entirely from those which have been formed for the purpose of musical exhibitions, although they fully appreciate the usefulness of these, when properly conducted, in elevating the standard of musical taste; nor do they attempt particularly, the improvement of their own members. Their object is rather to diffuse the knowledge of music, in its most beneficial forms throughout the community; and the whole income which may be derived from classes, concerts, subscriptions, and donations will be devoted, by the terms of their charter, to the extension of vocal music among the teachers and schools of our country.

With these objects in view, the Academy look with confidence to the enlightened friends of education for approbation and aid in their undertaking, and they rely with still more confidence, on the blessing of God, upon a plan, whose ultimate design is to promote the honor of his name, and the advancement of 'that kingdom, which is righteousness, and peace, in the hearts of their fellow-men.'

GEORGE WM. GORDON,
Boston, July 3d, 1833. *Secretary of the Academy.*

OFFICERS OF THE BOSTON ACADEMY OF MUSIC.

Jacob Abbott, *President.*
David Greene, *Vice President.*
Geo. Wm. Gordon, *Rec. Secretary.*
Wm. C. Woodbridge, *Cor. Secretary.*
J. A. Palmer, *Treasurer.*

Counsellors.

Daniel Noyes,
Bela Hunting,
H. M. Willis,
J. S. Withington,
Wm. J. Hubbard,
Geo. H. Snelling,
Benj. Perkins,
Moses Grant,
Geo. E. Head.

Professors.

Lowell Mason, *Professor.*
George J. Webb. *Associate Professor.*

INTELLIGENCE.

American Institute of Instruction.

The Annual Meeting of the Institute will be held at the Representatives' Hall in Boston, on Thursday, the 22d of August next, at 9 o'clock A. M., and the session will continue until the 27th.

On the first day of the session the choice of officers will take place; the Introductory Address will be delivered by Wm. Sullivan, of Boston; and a lecture on 'the Education and Qualifications of Teachers,' by S. R. Hall, of Andover, Mass. A public discussion will then be held on 'the relative importance of the development of the faculties and the acquisition of knowledge as objects of Elementary Education.'

On Friday, lectures will be delivered 'on *Emulation* as a motive to exertion in Schools,' by Rev. Leonard Withington, of Newbury, Mass.; on '*Primary Education*,' by Rev. Gardiner B. Perry, of Bradford, Mass.; and 'on *Mental Philosophy* applied to Instruction,' by A. A. Baker, of Andover, Mass.: — and a discussion will take place on the importance of *Phrenology* to a teacher.

On Saturday, lectures will be delivered on 'the best methods of *Discipline* for the young,' by Rev. John H. Hopkins, Bishop of Vermont; on 'the Importance of *Natural History*, and the modes of pursuing the study,' by Dr J. B. Flint, of Boston; and on 'the importance to parents and teachers of a knowledge of *Human Physiology*, by Dr E. Reynolds of Boston. A discussion will take place on the question — 'How may the evils of too long confinement to the school-room be prevented?'

On Monday, the 22d, lectures will be delivered on 'the *Method* of *Jacotot*,' by Geo. W. Greene, of East Greenwich, R. I.; on 'the best method of teaching the *Ancient Languages*,' by Prof. Alpheus S. Packard, of Bowdoin College, Maine; on 'the Importance of a Knowledge of *Ancient Art*, to those engaged in the higher departments of Classical Instruction,' by H. R. Cleaveland, of Boston; and on 'the best modes of teaching *Geography*,' by W. C. Woodbridge, of Boston. A discussion will take place on the expediency of *Bodily Punishment* in Schools.

On Tuesday, lectures will be delivered 'on the mode of teaching *Elocution*,' by Dr Jonathan Barber, of Cambridge, Mass.; 'on the best mode of teaching *Natural Philosophy*,' by Prof. B. Hale, of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H.; and 'on the danger of unsafe or useless *Innovation*, and the indication of any present tendency to this evil in our country,' by E. A. Andrews, late of New Haven, Conn., now of Boston. The question will then be discussed, 'In what way can the American Institute of Instruction do most to advance the cause of Education?'

A lecture will be delivered, at such time as may be found most convenient, on the '*new mode* of teaching *Music*, compared with the old,' by Lowell Mason, Professor in the Boston Academy of Music.

The following subjects for discussion have also been selected by the Directors, and may be called up, at any time during the session not otherwise occupied; viz:

The proper *combination* of *oral* and experimental *instruction* and lessons

from *text-books*, and the advantages that have been experienced from the different modes in use;

The expediency of awarding *medals*;

The introduction of *manual labor* schools; and

The practicability of having a board of literary gentlemen, not members of the school committee, to conduct examinations in schools.

Such are the preparations made for this meeting of the Institute.

The panic which prevailed last year in relation to the cholera, prevented many persons who otherwise would have been present, from attending the meeting, thus making the audience, and the number of lectures delivered, smaller than usual.

Happily no cause of present apprehension exists, and the attendance may be expected to be greater than common, from the disappointment of last year.

The causes which led to the formation of the Institute, — the necessity of advancing the profession of the teacher, by introducing a higher standard and requiring a more complete preparation among its members, and by rendering apparent to the community the great value of thoroughly educated teachers, — the desirableness of giving teachers an opportunity of becoming acquainted with each other, and freely communicating new views and modes of instruction as they are introduced, — the advantages of a liberal discussion of various systems, and the accumulation of facts from numerous independent observers, and the thence consequent improvement in the objects, the course, and the means of instruction, and in the qualifications, character and activity of teachers, — these causes still exist. They act and will continue to act, with unabated energy.

Much has certainly been done towards accomplishing the objects of the Institute. The Society itself has unquestionably done much. The necessity of full preparation for the business of teaching is every day more apparent and more generally acknowledged. Young men of talents are looking forward to it with predilection, as their profession. Departments for the special preparation of teachers are contemplated in several colleges, and in some already established.

The advantage and satisfaction of mutual acquaintance among teachers from various parts of the country have been felt. The utility of the Institute is recognised in the existence of the numerous societies with similar objects, which have been formed since its organization.

Much yet remains to be done; and in what way can the objects of the Institute be better accomplished than by the active and intelligent coöperation of teachers and the friends of education? How can they become acquainted with each other and be made to perceive the excellencies or deficiencies of systems and methods, but by personal conference, by meeting, and bringing together the conclusions of observations and experience, — by feeling and communicating the sympathy of common wants and common pursuits?

To all interested in education, especially to members of school committees, and to those already entered or about to enter into the work of instruction, the meeting of the Institute presents an occasion which ought not, without urgent necessity, to be neglected.

By order of the Committee of Arrangements.

C. Durgin,
Recording Secretary.

Boston, July 19, 1833.

Bristol Collegiate Institution.

We have received a pamphlet embracing an account of this Institution, from which we derive the following brief description of its leading features; which, though not wholly peculiar, are worthy of record.

This Institution is located at Clifton, or China Retreat, three miles below Bristol, and sixteen or eighteen above Philadelphia. It has extensive and commodious buildings, with a landed estate of about 380 acres of excellent soil, under high cultivation. The Institution is divided into three departments; 1st, the College proper, of *four classes* corresponding with the four years of the collegiate course; 2d, the Academical Department, and 3d, the Select Preparatory School. A prominent object of the Institution is to fit young men for the Christian ministry, yet others are not excluded.

The course of Instruction in each department is intended to be thorough and complete. We observe that in the senior class, the *Constitution of the United States* is made a branch of study;—and that the *Scriptures* are studied throughout the whole course. No student is admitted to the collegiate department without having it expressly understood that he intends to go through the whole course of four years.

In every department three hours of manual labor a day, at gardening, printing, book-binding, or some other employment, is required, for which they are paid; and on Saturday afternoon, the period of labor may be extended to five hours. No person is admitted to the Institution without a distinct pledge, that he will cheerfully and regularly comply with these conditions. They are also required, in all cases, to bind themselves to abstain from the use of ardent spirits, during their continuance.

Teachers' Society, of Georgia.

We learn from the 'Hickory Nut' of Thomaston, Georgia, that a meeting of Teachers was convened at Athens on the 10th of June last, which continued in session two days.—Several interesting essays were read on various subjects connected with education; *some of which were written by ladies.* Much important business was brought before the Society. Female education and Manual Labor Schools were, however, the leading topics. Various subjects were freely discussed, many important facts and much valuable information collected, which were calculated to be highly beneficial to those who are engaged in the profession of teaching.*

Western Female Institute.

A school under this title has been recently established at Cincinnati, Ohio, by Miss Beecher, the well known Principal of the Hartford Female Seminary, and her sister, and on the same general principles of aiming at intellectual and moral development, rather than at mere acquisitions and accomplishments. The number is limited to 30 pupils, and two ladies of experience, besides the two superintendents of the school, are devoted to their education. To aid in Physical Education, Calisthenics are adopted as a means of relaxation and exercise, and instead of the practice of some schools (which we confess has sometimes excited a smile and sometimes a sigh), of allowing but *five minutes* to this daily session, we are

* A very interesting meeting of the friends of common schools, has been recently held in New York. We have only room, at present, to announce the fact.

gratified to learn that *half an hour* is devoted to it each half day. It is rendered attractive by music, and serves at the same time as a lesson in musical rhythm. We are assured by those who have tried both, that it is a far more efficient means than dancing, for improving the form and the manners, without any of its evils. We hope this institution will prove as valuable as that established at Hartford.

Brewster's Optics.

We are gratified to see the first American edition of Sir David Brewster's treatise on Optics, published by Carey, Lea, & Blanchard, of Philadelphia. The new and extraordinary facts discovered by Brewster, especially on the polarization of light, are here presented in connection with this science with the clearness and simplicity characteristic of this author, and in a form accessible to every student.

Natural History of Fishes.

The natural history of the fishes of Massachusetts, by Dr Smith, is just published in beautiful style, by Allen & Ticknor. It is not only a most interesting work to an ordinary reader, but will furnish valuable materials for instruction to every teacher, especially in our seaport towns. We hope the day is not far distant when such books will form a part of the every-day reading of our schools, and children will not be compelled to resort to the most ignorant men in society for their knowledge of the character and uses of the plants and animals around them.

NOTICES.

Key to History. Part 2d. The Hebrews. By Elizabeth P. Peabody. Boston. Marsh, Capen & Lyon, 1833. 12mo. pp. 136.

This is the second part of a work we noticed some time since, intended to form a guide to a complete course of historical studies in original authors. It consists of a series of questions on the Scriptures, Josephus, Jahn, and Müller, by which a connected account is obtained of the history of the Hebrews down to the destruction of Jerusalem. It is preceded by an account of Sacred Geography. We have expressed our full conviction of the utility of the plan; and the character of the author is a sufficient guarantee for the faithfulness of the execution. This, however, is simply a *scientific* history, without any reference to those religious associations and instructions with which it is connected in the Scriptures. We think it highly useful to one who has already studied it in this form, as giving a scientific arrangement of facts; but we question, with regard to young persons, whether it is expedient thus to 'put asunder' what Divine authority has united. We appreciate too highly the value of the Old Testament to be willing that this revelation of childhood, as fully adapted, in its leading features, to the infantile state of individuals, as it was to that of the nation to whom it was given, should be placed on the same level in the early associations of youth, with the stories of Greece and Rome, or the annals of modern empires.

We learn that Miss Peabody proposes to establish permanently a *historical school*, already commenced, in which this mode of instruction shall be adopted, illustrated by lectures. We think such a course will be of great value to those who wish to become familiar with this interesting branch of knowledge, so imperfectly taught even in our best schools; and we are sure, no one will regret the time redeemed for such a purpose. We see not why the work before us may not serve as a complete guide to such a course in every village circle.

The Teacher, or Moral Influence employed in the Instruction and Government of the Young; intended chiefly to assist young teachers in organizing and conducting their schools. By Jacob Abbott, late Principal of the Mount Vernon Female School, Boston, Mass. Boston: Pierce & Parker, 1833; 12mo. pp. 293.

We have never visited a school, whose spirit and character produced so delightful an impression upon us, as that superintended by Mr Abbott. We should not know where to begin or to stop in describing this work; but we can give no higher commendation than to say that it presents, in the most familiar and interesting manner, the principles and methods by which these results were produced, and may be reproduced by any one who will act with the spirit and the faithfulness of the author. We consider it invaluable to every young teacher. Would that it might be read and practised upon until the multiplied nurseries of impatience and envy, and strife, and evil speaking, which exists among our schools, shall be converted into sanctuaries of peace and joy; and sources of virtue as well as knowledge. We cannot forbear to mention one trait which pervades the whole system, and which was admirably described by a venerated friend and correspondent, now deceased.* '*Love your pupils*,' said he to a well-educated teacher, just entering a school, 'and you will find little difficulty in governing them.'

Introduction to the Eclectic Reader, a selection of familiar lessons designed for common schools. By B. B. Edwards, Editor of the American Quarterly Register. Boston. Perkins & Marvin, 1833. 12mo. pp. 168.

We find in this work, the same exhibition of industry, and judgment, and taste, which we admired in the Eclectic Reader. The same spirit pervades it. It is a christian spirit, which will distinguish it, in its character and influence, from those which aim at a sphere above or aside from all religion, and prepare it to exert a positive influence of the highest value, where they would be merely negative. At the same time, we can discover nothing which would displease any, unless it be those who consider it improper to communicate to Pagan nations the most valuable knowledge, the noblest gift of Heaven which we possess. It is rich in selections from Jane Taylor, Miss Martineau, Miss Gould, and Bryant, Gallaudet and others, who know how to present truth and beauty in an attire so strikingly simple as to interest the child, while it delights the man.

Geographical Copy Book, consisting of Outline and Skeleton Maps, adapted to the use of schools, with explanations of the nature, use, and construction of Maps. By W. C. Woodbridge. Boston. Carter, Hendue & Co. 1833. 4to. 25 maps.

The object of this work is to furnish, in geography, something corresponding to translations in the study of a language, or the working of examples, in arithmetic, or the copy book in writing from models. It consists of twentyfive outline and skeleton maps. The outline maps (sometimes called blank maps) comprise all the lines and objects of an ordinary map, but no names; and correspond to the *Cartes Muettes* (or dumb maps) of the French. These the pupil is required, as a first exercise, to fill up, from memory, country by country, as he advances with the towns and names. Opposite to each outline map is a *skeleton map*, on which the lines of latitude and longitude only are drawn. As soon as the pupil is familiar with the outlines, he is expected to transfer them, country by country, to this map; and he is thus most easily introduced to the important practice of drawing from memory, without which the teacher is never sure of the accuracy of his knowledge, and which will serve, like the simultaneous mode of recitation on the slate, in the schools of mutual instruction, to test the knowledge of a whole class at once.

* Rev. Joseph Emerson, late of Wethersfield Conn., whose character as an educator is attested by hundreds of grateful pupils.

The work is introduced by an account of the nature of maps which presents the bject in a manner more simple than we have yet seen, and directions for awing the principal projections. It was prepared from the conviction at such a work was needed, and that the method of study it proposes would ntribute materially to the facility of gaining an accurate knowledge of geograph-al studies. The maps are engraved on wood, and in order to render them as ttle expensive as possible are printed on paper which will receive ink, that it ay answer the purpose of a copy-book.

ORRESPONDENCE IN REFERENCE TO THE FEMALE COLLEGE OF BOGOTA.

[We are indebted to a friend for the following copy of a correspondence etween a devoted advocate of Female education in this country, and the Principal the Female College at Bogota; which is another cheering indication of the mpathy which we hope will ever exist between the different portions of our ntinent and in the cause of humanity.]

LETTER TO SENORA MARIA ISABELLA CARDENAS, PRINCIPAL OF THE EMALE COLLEGE AT BOGOTA.

Hartford, Conn. Nov. 8th, 1832.

MADAM, — Separated as we are, — by broad leagues of earth and ean, we seem yet to be brought near each other, by national and in-llectual sympathies.

The republics of South America, from the commencement of their ruggle against despotism, have been to us objects of intense interest, nd New Granada, by her zeal in the great cause of Education, no less an by her patriotism, merits our peculiar admiration. Is it not remark-ble, that she should thus have turned her attention to the *instruction of males*, ere she had fully recovered from the weariness and turmoil of volution? Other climes have required ages, to discover the worth of e weaker sex, — and to vanquish that jealous reluctance which exclu-ed them from the temple of sciences. But your republic seems almost tuitively to have learned a lesson from Liberty—which Greece and Rome, long her pupils and worshippers, *never acquired*, — the influence of wo-an in modifying national character, and the policy of preparing her for important an agency.

With no common delight, I have heard of the establishment of a col-ge for females at Bogota, and of the illustrious office designated for urself, in connection with it. Thus, although a stranger, I have en animated by a desire to address you, and to welcome you to duties, e most responsible that devolve upon our sex.

The education of those, who are in their turn to educate others, and om the retired fountains of domestic privacy to send forth sweet or bit-r streamlets, more widely than the eye can see, or the mind compute, a station of high honor and deep accountability. The impressions us made are to be perpetuated through unborn generations, and to take old on the destinies of Eternity. I can speak with earnestness of the artfelt satisfaction springing out of such a department, from the expe-ence of some of the happiest years of my life. To nourish the young ind in its freshness and beauty, with the dews of knowledge, — to re-ove the excrescences that obstruct its vigor, or mar its symmetry, — to ise its tender buds to the beam of Heaven, — and wait in prayer upon at God of Harvest, from whom alone is the increase, is a hallowed toil, — bounty 'blessing him who gives, and him who takes.'

I shall ever be interested, to receive intelligence of the progress of the Institution under your charge, and of your personal welfare.—Permit me to extend to you, the hand of friendship, and of sisterly regard, with the wish that the efforts of your country for the intellectual benefit of her children, may result in her own stability and glory, — and that your own part in the labor, may receive a reward above the fleeting distinctions of a world that perisheth. L. H. S.

REPLY. — TRANSLATED FROM THE SPANISH.

Bogota, New-Granada, Jan. 14th, 1833.

MADAM, — The much esteemed letter which you have been pleased to address me, has excited in my heart the purest sentiments of gratitude and respect. Your interest for New-Granada proves the nobleness and patriotism of your illustrious nation, the mistress of liberty and virtue, which devotes herself so much to the prosperity of her sisters in this part of America. We should be happy could we gratify your generous desires by following the excellent examples of that favored country.

The importance of giving a finished education to woman, is proved by experience. She gives the primitive formation to the character of the citizen. It is to her, that the first foundations of morality are entrusted, on which the fabric of public happiness is reared. On her, in no trifling degree, depends the prosperity of nations. Yet her influence on these subjects, has been almost disavowed; and hence has been neglected the instruction of a sex, which by its vivacity of imagination, and delicacy of talent, is designed greatly to enrich society, and to contribute to the enjoyment of life. It is a mistake, to suppose that on account of the domestic employments of women, they exert no influence beyond the walls of their homes.

This republic however, bound in iron for so many ages, under Spanish despotism, learned, in chains, even the necessity of extending instruction to both sexes, and to all classes. Had it not been for political disorders, she would have made far greater progress in this work. But the indolence of an absolute government, which reaped no revenue from the protection of knowledge, and the obstacles to be encountered among a people in a state of revolution, paralyzed the hand stretched out for the intellectual guidance of ou rfair and brilliant ones. Now that order has succeeded to anarchy and an enlightened and truly liberal administration has taken the disposal of our public affairs, education has become the most favored object of its solicitude. In this city, *two* Female colleges have been already established, and are in perfect operation. Their pupils are making surprising progress in all the branches appropriate to their sex. Truly, no service can be more noble than that of directing Education. The satisfaction of seeing just hopes realized, of following out the improvements which are made, and of presenting to society young ladies, capable of discharging their lofty duties, is a pleasure known but to few, a pleasure which can only be comprehended in its full extent by one who has tasted it, and felt that it is a science which ennobles both her who teaches, and her who learns.

Be pleased, madam, to accept with kindness, the most sincere expressions of gratitude, for the honor which you have done me in thus addressing me, — for the philanthropy you show for the female youth in New Granada, — and for the distinguished friendship which you proffer me, and which I accept with all the regard due to yourself, and to the favor thus offered.

MARIA ISABELLA CARDENAS.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

SEPTEMBER, 1833.

Art. I.— On the Study of Physiology as a Branch of General Education.

Communicated to the American Lyceum. *

By William A. Alcott.

No science is more neglected than Physiology. I use the term in a general sense, however, as including much that in strictness of language belongs to anatomy. The importance of this science to all classes of mankind appears to me most obvious. The wisdom of the injunction, *Know thyself*, has been admitted for ages, and yet so far as a knowledge of the human frame is concerned, the maxim is forgotten in practice. Surely this must be a great mistake on the part of all those who have influence in affairs relating to education.

The person who should occupy a dwelling seventy, eighty, or a hundred years, and yet be unable to tell the number of its apartments, or the nature, character, &c, of any of its materials, — perhaps even the number of stories of which it consisted,—would be thought inexcusably ignorant. Yet, with the exception of medical men, and here and there an individual belonging to the other professions, is there one person in a thousand who knows anything

* We owe it, perhaps, to the author of this Essay to say, that it was written hastily, by our earnest desire, in order to bring this important subject before the American Lyceum at their meeting in May last; and that circumstances have allowed of little revision.—Ed.

about the elementary materials — the structure — or even the number of apartments in the present habitation of his mind? But is it not strange, that during the progress of a life which is often protracted nearly a hundred years, while we become acquainted with thousands of fellow beings, and millions of objects in the vegetable and mineral world, we should remain profoundly ignorant of our own physical frame, and die, even, without once being introduced to ourselves?

How an education ever came to be regarded as either liberal or complete without a knowledge of physiology, is to me inconceivable. We know, indeed, what obstacles ignorance and prejudice have thrown in the way of improvement generally, and we know how these obstacles have always been met; but the question will still recur: 'Why have individuals been found ready and willing to sacrifice property, and health, and reputation, and life, for every thing else rather than the knowledge of themselves?'

Is it because there is nothing in the human structure and economy to gratify curiosity or excite wonder? There are few who are not fond of natural science, in most of its departments; especially natural history. And is there no pleasure to be derived from the study of that animal which has been represented as being, above all others, 'fearfully and wonderfully made?' Does it afford no pleasure to study the structure and functions of the stomach and liver, and other organs concerned in changing a mass of beaten food — perhaps some of the *coarser vegetables* — into blood? — Of the heart, and arteries, and veins, which convey this fluid, to the amount of three gallons, through all parts of the body, once in four minutes? — Of the lungs, which restore the half-spoiled blood to its wonted purity, as fast as it is sent into them, and enable it once more to pursue a healthful course through its ten thousand channels? — Of the brain, and especially the nerves, which by their innumerable branches spread themselves over every soft part of the human system, (and some of the harder parts,) which they can possibly penetrate, in such numbers that we can no where insert the point of the finest needle without piercing them? — Of the skin, every square inch of which contains the mouths or extremities of a million of minute vessels? — Is all this, I say, uninteresting?

Is it for want of a connection with other sciences? Does it illustrate none of the mechanical laws? What then shall we say of the joint by which the head is united to the neck in a way which human art never originated, if it could even imitate it? — Of the joints at the elbow and wrist, which admit of such numerous and complicated motions? — Of the structure and motion of the lungs, and their bony covering; of the heart, the muscles, &c? Even the wonders of the human hand, an instrument which we constantly

put in requisition, have rarely been told, or its functions understood.

Have we no interest in observing the chemical laws which, to some extent, operate within the system in the formation and combination of those fluids which we call the saliva, the gastric juice, the bile, the pancreatic fluid; — in the changes of food into chyme, of chyme into blood, of blood, or the particles which it holds in solution, into solid masses; — in the change which the blood undergoes in the lungs, and many other mysterious processes?

Above all, is there nothing to arrest our attention in the manner by which that unknown principle which we call *life*, is able to resist — often successfully, for seventy or eighty years, — the tendency of the solids and fluids to decomposition and putrefaction, and the delicate membranes of the body to bear the weight of the incumbent atmosphere, resting upon them at the rate of fifteen pounds to the square inch? Is there no wisdom displayed in the construction of so complicated, and yet so wonderful a machine, and in endowing it with the power of retaining an average heat of 96 or 98 degrees, whether the surrounding atmosphere be heated to 100 degrees, or cooled to 32, or even to a much lower point? Is there, moreover, no mental discipline involved in the study of physiology? Is it the exclusive province of mathematical science to invigorate and discipline the mental powers?

Half the labor, to speak quite within bounds, of every educator of our race, from the mother and infant school teacher to the magistrate and the minister of religion, is lost, and worse than lost, for want of a thorough knowledge of this subject. When I say *thorough*, however, I only mean *so far as we go*. It is not supposed that every educator needs to be a Haller, a Richerand, or a Magendie. But I repeat it, so far as an individual goes in the study of physiology, whether he study the character and functions of one organ or ten, let him understand his subject. A *little*, that is, a *superficial* knowledge, is justly regarded as 'a dangerous thing;' and the more so in proportion to its practical value, if understood thoroughly.

If man is ever to be elevated to the highest and happiest condition which his nature will permit, it must be, in no small degree, by the improvement, I might say the redemption, of his physical powers. But knowledge, on any subject, must always precede improvement.

It is probably owing to ignorance of the nature, structure, powers and purposes of the digestive apparatus, more than to any other single cause, that so much mischief is done to the young by excess, or impropriety in eating and drinking. Not that correct information on this point would lead at once to correct practice; but no reform can be expected until there is a conviction of its necessity;

for we cannot appeal to the conscience with any fair prospect of success, so long as that conscience remains unenlightened.

To show the urgent necessity which exists for diffusing physiological science, I may be allowed to dwell a little on this topic.

Error in eating and drinking is among the most pernicious evils of this country; and of all others, perhaps, the most influential in retarding improvement. Dr Caldwell, of the Transylvania University — and on this point he is by no means alone — believes that the indiscretions practised in supplying infants with food is the principal reason why they are less healthy than the young of the inferior animals. 'We confine our young domestic animals,' says he, 'to simple fare, and supply them with it in measured quantities, and they remain healthy, thrive on it, and attain perfection. But we allow, and even entice our children to eat everything; and the only limit imposed, as to quantity, is the extent of their craving.' And not satisfied with this, he might have added, we contrive, by giving them high seasoned and too stimulating food and drink, to excite their sated appetites still more.

This error is committed, and extensively too, by millions of our race. In truth, no person is wholly exempt from its mischievous influences. We call ourselves rational beings, and yet even at adult age, we take our food — an act on which much of our comfort and usefulness depend — like beings of mere appetite. In common with many of the unrestrained animals which we are accustomed to consider as below us, we often eat almost as long as we are able to swallow food, pass a few hours in dreamy dulness, and then shake off our torpor to surfeit ourselves again. Thus the stomach is unreasonably oppressed, and diseased action necessarily ensues. And if the stomach and other organs concerned in digestion become diseased, the whole system feels it, and receives injury in two ways. 1. The supply of chyle becomes either deficient or excessive in quantity, and always inferior in quality; and when the chyle is imperfect, the blood must necessarily be so. 2. The brain and nerves, and other organs, *sympathise*, as it is termed, with the disturbed or diseased organs of digestion, in such a manner that when the latter suffer, the former suffer with them. Hence the doctrine that, 'if one member suffer, all the members suffer with it,' is as true in physiology as in morals. In both these ways the constitution is gradually, though perhaps for several years imperceptibly, undermined; and, as it has been said, the individual must sooner or later 'wither like a plant whose sap is poisoned, and its roots enfeebled in their nutritive functions.'

But farther; Does the infant exhibit any degree of uneasiness? It is at once attributed to hunger, and the supposed infallible remedy is instantly administered. Its mouth is stopped, its

fretting silenced, and its stomach gorged to satiety, till it even runs over with food.

'This practice,' says the respectable writer whom I have recently mentioned, 'can scarcely be called less than criminal; and the record of its effects, in the history of our race, is appalling to humanity. Feeble health, severe and often loathsome disease, vacant idiocy, raving madness, death and degeneracy, make but a part of the account. All acknowledge that human beings die in myriads from improper feeding, but it does not yet seem very generally understood that the race degenerate from the same cause. * Yet the latter result is as certain as the former. That which kills many and sickens a much larger number, must injure, to a greater or less extent, the constitutions of all who indulge in it. An excessive devotion to the pleasures of the table, continued through a line of several generations, never fails to produce degeneracy. It gives to the animal part of man a preponderance. Hence it has often been observed that the descendants of royal and imperial houses, accustomed from the cradle to luxurious living, lose, in time, all the higher attributes of humanity, and become pampered animals. The reason is plain. They are exercised chiefly in animal employments, — eating and drinking being one of them. Hence their animal organs gain an ascendancy over those of a nobler order.'

Were we to watch over the diet of our children with as much solicitude as an intelligent agriculturist watches over the young of his domestic animals, instead of 'degenerating,' as Dr C. expresses it, or even remaining stationary, our race would greatly improve. Our organization would, in time, be better; our powers, generally, of a higher order; and their condition happier. But instead of doing this, on the contrary we often consign infants to the feeding of those to whose care and skill we should hardly be willing to entrust a calf! And the consequence is well known. Man degenerates, while the breed of our domestic animals improves. Let our course of conduct be reversed, and we shall reverse the result. Men will improve, and cattle degenerate — a far more auspicious indication of that long looked for period in the history of our world when man and the most powerful and even ferocious animals are to dwell together in harmony, than is afforded by our present and increasing physical inferiority, and consequent mental and moral imbecility. But the morning star that must usher in this day of real improvement, and lead man to the highest and happiest condition of which he is susceptible, by shedding light around and within

* On this point, the language of Solomon often recurs to my mind: 'Because sentence against an evil work is not executed speedily, therefore the heart of the sons of men is fully set in them to do evil.'

him, and under God leading him home to himself, is physiology, or a thorough knowledge of his own nature.

Parents are warned of the danger of compressing the chest. They are told that the free action of the lungs is indispensable in order to purify the blood, which otherwise would soon become unfit for the support of life, and indeed poisonous; and are assured by those to whose advice they are accustomed to look, — in some circumstances with entire confidence — that just in proportion as this action is restrained, the blood must necessarily be imperfect. But what ideas do they receive by the phrase, '*motion of the lungs?*' Does one parent in a hundred ever think of any other *motion* than what is produced by mere bending of the body? In performing even this movement, they know that corsets are a hindrance. But of any motion beyond this, they have not, generally, the remotest conception. That there is a pair of muscles between each two ribs, and that the whole bony cavity has at every breath a triple and peculiarly complicated motion, forward, sideways and upward, and that tight dresses impede all these movements, and cause the lungs, when they swell to receive the air which we inhale, to crowd upon and disturb the operations of the organs lying in contact below, is what few parents perceive. If any explanation has ever been attempted, it has been but partially understood, for want of a knowledge of the terms employed; and what is explained under these disadvantages is soon forgotten. But let it be fully demonstrated by the skeleton, or what is better, by that which is denominated the *recent subject*, and no person will — for no *parent* can — ever forget it. Then we might make our appeals, at least to the Christian portion of the community, — I mean to those who have imbibed the spirit of improvement, — with a little hope of reaching the conscience, and of leaving an impression.

When the physician goes farther, however, and speaks of the remoter though no less certain injuries to which the system is exposed from compression of the chest, on account of the *sympathies* of other organs with the lungs, especially those which constitute the digestive system, and that peculiar apparatus of one half of our race which is designed for the continuance of the species, he still uses, to every practical purpose, an unknown tongue; and though his uninformed hearers may seem to understand and approve his doctrines, of this he may be assured, that no hold has been taken of their feelings which, alone, will ever lead to any important change in practice.

Still less, trained as we now are, do parents feel the force of any arguments derived from a regard to the welfare of the generations that are to follow them, whose every characteristic of body or mind is to be affected by themselves and their conduct; and whose hap-

piness must be graduated by the measure of attention which we, of the present generation, pay to the development of our physical frames. Dr Rush supposed that merely *as friends of our country*, we ought, in the formation of all our habits, as well as in every individual action, to have a wise and sacred regard to the welfare of the hundredth generation that may succeed us; and he believed that we were no more to be justified in doing or neglecting to do anything which should have a tendency to injure the species, however remotely, than if the effects of our conduct were confined to the very next generation. He probably supposed that the evils which are entailed on our offspring by excessive or improper eating or drinking, or by improprieties in dress, affected every successive generation; and unless corrected, must continue to be transmitted — aggravated perhaps by the continuance of the same habits and causes which begun the mischief, — until our physical natures shall be greatly degenerated. And is not this doctrine sound? But if so, is it not to a community, as Christians, that the appeal is strongest?

Could mothers once be enlightened on this subject, we hazard nothing in predicting that they would see, in its proper light, the danger that exists, and to which their own sex are peculiarly exposed. And were they convinced, it is reasonable to suppose they would not be wanting in that moral courage which is requisite to enable them to meet and oppose, by example, those customs or habits which fashion may have imposed upon us; but which, unless counteracted by an enlightened Christian influence, must continue, and increase upon each generation that shall succeed us, till our race shall have greatly degenerated, if not sunk to a state of general imbecility or downright idiocy.

I have thus given a few examples to illustrate the importance of a general knowledge of human physiology. Examples might be multiplied, almost indefinitely. I might speak of the inefficacy of all rules laid down for the cultivation of the eye, the ear, and the other senses, as well as for their due *preservation*. To do all that is desirable, would be to present a whole system of physiology; a result which it is the object of this essay to hasten, but which, of course would be foreign to my present purpose.

Much is said of the importance of exercise in order to preserve the system in a healthy state; and of the evils, to which those *muscles* and *organs* are exposed which are not brought into appropriate action. But what ideas are generally entertained of *muscular action*? Does one individual in ten know what a muscle or an organ is? — We speak of changes of the human constitution, — perhaps at particular periods of life; and caution parents to guard against the dangers to which the system is exposed in these circum-

stances; but what definite ideas do most parents obtain on these points? How few have any adequate ideas of the intentions of nature in effecting these changes! So far are they from watching over the young, in this respect, and giving them timely, necessary and valuable information, how few even know that such information is necessary? How many healthy youths have become sickly adults, — burdens to themselves as well as to society for life — nay, how many lives have actually been lost for want of a little knowledge of themselves! These remarks apply, *in some measure*, to both sexes. How many are over-tasked, either in body or mind, at a period when nature demands the expenditure of the whole amount of physical and mental energy in *completing the individual*, and preparing him for the fulfilment of all the duties which the Creator has seen fit to impose. The evils which result to our race from ignorance in these respects, are positively incalculable. It is not denied that from some unaccountable (but certainly reprehensible) cause or other, few parents act in conformity to the light which they already possess on this subject; but it is also believed that a free and unrestrained intercourse between parents and children in regard to their whole nature and destiny can never exist, until the former are made to perceive its necessity, by being supplied with the appropriate information.

How strange it is that a single parent should be found willing to trust her child to mere accident, without giving her one word of information on topics, on the right understanding of which so much of health, of happiness — and I may say, reputation — depend! But if a single instance of the kind is unaccountable, what shall we say of thousands of such instances? — Who would commit a vessel freighted merely with merchandize or produce, to the mercy of the winds and waves and other dangers of the sea, not only without a compass or helm, but destitute even of a pilot? And yet nothing is more common than to set the young 'adrift' on 'the world's wide sea' in a condition, (so far as the point in question is concerned) no less lamentable. In these circumstances, can anything else be reasonably expected but shipwreck? There is danger enough when a good pilot is procured and every possible precaution taken; but *where everything is neglected*, destruction would seem to be almost inevitable.

And let me say, however startling the conclusion, that the destruction of the young is *almost* inevitable. Not an instantaneous destruction, moral or physical, it is true; but what is often more dreadful, a lingering one. There are very few individuals to be found who do not sometimes yield to indulgences or excesses, either at the solicitation of their own appetite or in compliance with the customs which prevail around them, the tendency of

which is to diminish their vigor, if not to impair their health for life. I am just now speaking of errors in diet, drink, exercise, &c. without the remotest reference to those grosser errors to which I wish it was no part of my duty to advert. On the latter subject I might, however, say much, did my limits permit. I might speak of the prevalence of solitary as well as social vice, in boarding and high schools, — and even in too many instances in colleges. There is too much evidence that some of these supposed sources of moral purity are little more, to many of their inmates, than hotbeds of physical and moral pollution — and this, too, in spite of all the efforts which instructors, at this period of their pupils' age, and under the circumstances which often exist, can possibly make. Some striking facts might here be presented, did my limits and the nature of the subject permit; enough, at least to awaken every teacher and parent to renewed effort to devise means for meeting this tremendous and increasing evil. *

It is not supposed that a knowledge of physiology would be the means of correcting either common or gross errors at once. But what I contend for is, that until a knowledge of the laws which govern the human frame becomes so common that every parent and teacher can perceive how every abuse of the constitution must, of necessity, sooner or later bring punishment upon him who commits it, or upon his posterity, no radical or effectual reformation can be expected. There must be a familiarity on these subjects, between parents and children, which has rarely, if ever yet existed; and the child must be trained to see the sword of the avenger stretched out by permission of his Father in heaven, against every form of abuse of that body which was intended to be a 'temple of the Holy Spirit;' and of its every passion and appetite. In my own estimation we have no other safeguard. Let this be effectually tried. If this fail, it will then be early enough to sit down in despair.

On the subject of medical quackery, and the means of removing

* This process of undermining the health, and destroying, or rather preventing physical vigor, often begins much *earlier* than is supposed. It is no doubt hastened by 'evil communications;' I mean by having the imagination early filled with improper ideas by vicious companions; and I am sorry to say it, I have even known parents themselves to indulge in conversation before their children, which instead of giving them real and valuable information, and teaching them, *on this point*, to respect themselves, only tended directly to excite a kind of *pruriency* which themselves would most deeply regret, if they understood what its consequences were.

It is not the direct influence of *parental* error alone, that forms for the succeeding generation feeble and enervated bodies; but every vice of youth has the effect to weaken the progeny of an individual, should such progeny ever arise. When will this great truth be known, felt, and acted upon! When will it be distinctly and universally understood, that every error, at every age, necessarily entails evil on those who follow us, not merely to the 'third and fourth generation,' but till 'time shall be no longer!'

it, much might be said. It is believed, however, that the opinion is beginning to be received, that there is no other way to counteract it, but by diffusing physiological science. If it be true, as has recently been asserted by the president of one of our western colleges, in reference to the State of Tennessee, that 'every half-educated young physician who succeeds in getting a *reputable* share of practice, must have rid the world, rather prematurely, of some dozen or twenty individuals,' then the evils of this species of quackery are certainly extensive. For there is everywhere too strong a disposition to prefer the ignorant and assuming, though young practitioner, to the modest, the intelligent, and the experienced: the *half-educated* to the few whose education has been more worthy of a responsible profession. But this disposition, so universal, has its foundation in ignorance, and can only be counteracted by knowledge.

Let physiology shed its light on the face of society, and medical quackery will soon disappear. The stream cannot flow after its sources are dried up, or the noxious weed flourish where it cannot find a pabulum. If duly informed, men will learn, in time, to trust less to those who are not worthy of their confidence, and more to those who are. They will be better able to estimate their own strength; to know how far they can safely go in prescribing for themselves and their families, and when to seek professional advice. They will escape both extremes; that of contemning medical advice and aid, and that of relying upon it on every trifling occasion: of which, however, the latter is by far the most dangerous.

If mothers understood the structure and laws of the physical frame, they could not surely subject their infants to that abuse so often witnessed of giving them anodyne medicines habitually — elixirs, laudanum, cordials, &c. They must perceive, from the nature of the stomach, the brain, and the nervous system, that except in cases of actual disease, they cannot escape being injured by them. But in their present ignorance of physiology, it often happens that if they do not see *immediate* evil effects arise from a thing they will not believe all the physicians in the world, who may forewarn them of future and certain evil. The belief that twenty or thirty drops of laudanum, for example, given daily to a young child, may be pernicious, and yet a very small dose of the same substance be innocent, is an error which a knowledge of physiology would, at once, eradicate. *

The case is much the same with errors in food, drink, dress, ex-

* A few cases may illustrate the truth of these remarks. A family of ten children, all of whom were uncommonly healthy and vigorous, were dosed with elixir daily, because they cried rather more than was agreeable. The dose, as is usual, was increased until they were two or three years of age, when it was

ercise, &c. The evil consequences are pointed out by physicians, but many will not believe. They *perceive* the evils it is true, but they attribute them to other causes. Or if the evil do not *immediately* appear, they think it never will. The experience of the whole medical world passes for nothing with such persons; and especially where appetite, or humor, or fashion happen to be opposed to this mass of testimony.

An opinion has gained currency in the world, and especially among the sex who rule it, that it is unsafe to call for a physician, as long as we can possibly get along without. This opinion is carried to an extreme which involves the yearly loss of many lives, —but I know of little advantage derived from it to *any* class of the community but *sextons*.

'Prevention is better than cure,' is a maxim of obvious wisdom, but why it should be deemed inapplicable in the present case, and applicable everywhere else, is to me inconceivable. Let me be distinctly understood. I am no advocate for indiscriminate dosing, but quite the contrary. But I am well assured that the popular fear that if we send for a physician, he will *make us sick*, is foolish and unreasonable. Generally we have it in our power to select an individual in whom we can, or ought to, confide. And it is fully believed, that, taking things as they are, for one that is *made* sick by the physician, ten die by neglecting to call him in season.

Mothers are apt to think *themselves* the best physicians, especially for their own children. There are, indeed, occasional exceptions to the truth of this remark, for there are some who fall into the opposite extreme of error, and run for the physician perpetually. We shall seldom find persons of the last class, however, who will

gradually discontinued, and no evil consequences immediately appearing, the mother supposes the practice to be not only innocent, but useful; and recommends it to her friends. But these children, some of them now thirty years of age, do not retain that degree of vigor which their early activity seemed to promise, and which has been common with their ancestors. With most of them there is already so much of a declension as to give rise to expressions of surprise that it could happen. Now I do not affirm that this premature loss of vigor and activity was produced by an early and free use of elixir, but only that no mother, under such circumstances, ought hastily to conclude her practice was innocent; and what is still worse, endeavor to spread it, in defiance of the opinions of those whose knowledge of the human frame leads them to very different conclusions.

Another lady, the mother of a large family, gave her infants laudanum to keep them quiet, while she could labor. And almost every one of those children are obviously possessed of very inferior intellects; and many of them possess very little energy of character; and there is no other obvious cause of accounting for the fact, than by supposing that the mischief was done by the laudanum.

But the evil of these pernicious practices sometimes appears more immediately. A healthy child was dosed with laudanum to keep it quiet, beginning with one drop and gradually increasing it to twenty or thirty at a dose, til at the age of six months this treatment produced epileptic fits, from which it recovered with very great difficulty. I doubt, however, whether the mother could be made to believe the child was injured by the laudanum, even now!

steadily follow a prescription, for if the medicine should escape the charge of containing some fancied poison, and being thrown into the fire, its effects will probably be neutralized or counteracted by errors in diet, drink or exercise. But although I have very little confidence in the ability of mothers to do much without advice, trained as they now are, yet I am quite confident that their co-operation in the plans of a rational and judicious physician is indispensable. Yet they can never be made to perceive the *importance* of this co-operation, and of yielding their opinion to his, in cases where no immediate danger is perceived, so long as their ignorance of the human frame and the laws which govern it shall continue. And however heterodox the opinion may seem to many, it is generally in cases where immediate danger is not very great, that medical advice is most useful.

In view of these considerations, I repeat it, parents — and mothers in particular, on whom so much of our physical, intellectual and moral well-being depend — must have a knowledge of physiology. Of the redemption of man's physical nature without this knowledge, there is very little hope. 'If this world is ever to become a happier and better world,' says Mr Flint in his Western Review, 'woman, *well-educated,* disciplined, and principled, sensible of her influence, and wise and benevolent to exert it aright, must be the original mover in this great work.' She must be so both by the influence of example and precept.

She must feel herself responsible, in a great measure, for the physical welfare of those who are entrusted to her care. Let her remember that not only the health and enjoyment, but even the *beauty* of her children is, to a considerable extent, at her disposal; and beauty is not to be despised. Who does not know that intemperance in eating and drinking, and even intemperate passions, injure the features? If they should not produce a pimpled nose, red eyes, or livid or fiery cheeks, they will at least give a dull appearance to the eyes, and stupidity to the whole features; and there are certain passions which, if long indulged, knit permanently the brow, depress the angles of the mouth, and thus render the countenance disagreeable, if not painful to all who behold it.

The mother, I say, *must* be instructed in this important branch of natural science, for in the appropriate management of the digestive system, lungs, heart, brain, nerves, skin, and the senses, from the earliest moments of infancy, consists not merely an *important* part, but in view of its *results* the *principal* part of education. But *if* so, then the mother, educated or uneducated, wise or ignorant, is the principal arbiter of human destiny. The spirit which inhabits this frame, is, beyond debate, greatly influenced and modified by its tenement. For though many

good men have possessed miserable bodies, yet there can be no doubt that the same effort on their own part and on the part of those around them, which constituted them what they were, had it been aided by more vigorous bodies, would have made them far *better* and more effective actors on the great theatre of human existence.

Next to the mother, a knowledge of the human frame is important to the teacher. This is true, whether his office be to *instruct* merely, for a few hours of the day, or to *educate*. Those who have their pupils constantly under their care, as in some of our boarding or select schools, may be considered as *substitutes*, for the time, for parents; and any remarks which go to show the obligations which parents are under, to understand the physical constitutions of their children, would be equally applicable to their circumstances.

As to those who only instruct their pupils six hours of the day, for five days of the week, and eleven or twelve weeks in a quarter, while they are with their parents or elsewhere the rest of the time, it may seem at first view, impossible *they* should derive much benefit from a knowledge of physiology. Yet when we consider the subject more closely, we shall find such a conclusion premature. What teacher, who had a thorough understanding of the animal functions, would permit his younger pupils, especially females, to sit an hour or two at a time on a hard bench, without any support for the back; and suffer it to be repeated day after day, month after month, and year after year? To say nothing of its cruelty, or its tendency to disgust the pupil with school-rooms and schools, and by association, with everything connected with them, is it not obvious that it greatly exposes the spine, at that tender age, to a species of curvature which may and probably will be productive of the most serious evils afterwards, and very possibly be the means of destroying life? It is well known that suffering of the kind to which I refer is much greater in amount, other things being equal, in cities and places where females are subjected to the unnatural restraints of many of our schools, than elsewhere.

Would a teacher who knew the human constitution, and the *changes* which it undergoes, make no allowance for those changes of temper and feeling which are so often their accompaniment? Would he expect his pupils, under the circumstances to which I allude, to be so far skilled in the art of controlling their feelings, as to appear cheerful when they are not so; and to prosecute their studies with their usual zeal when they are unfit for it? Would he regard every little ebullition of the passions, in either of the great classes of his pupils, at a particular age, as indicating determined obstinacy, or unalterable perversity of temper?

Teachers must understand this subject, before they are at all qualified to aid in the formation of character, even for six hours in a day. They must study the constitution of each individual who is committed to their charge. Some children are fond enough of study, but after several hours confinement in school, are apt to exercise violently, or to excess; and as the *immediate* consequence, (or reaction,) manifest a disinclination for their books and lessons. Others eat too much, especially at dinner. Others load their stomachs with cold water, perhaps, when heated with exercise. Let the instructor, who finds his pupils given to occasional yawning and neglect of their studies, remember that they have bodies; and if he understand in how many ways the condition of the body may influence the mind, when he is disposed to punish a pupil for indolence, either by privation, frowns, threats, or blows, he will often find that the real crime is that of eating or drinking too much, or abusing the body in some way or other. Many a child has been punished for laziness, when if punished at all, it should have been for intemperance.

There are many points of view in which a knowledge of physiology is important to the teacher. It will enable him to accommodate the recreations of his pupils to their actual wants better than he could otherwise do. Should bathing be practised, he will be able to designate the proper hour, and manner of conducting it; and to put them on their guard against any dangers to which they may be exposed in prosecuting it. It is only a few days since, that the principal of one of our largest and most flourishing seminaries for young men, inquired what was the most appropriate hour for bathing; and on being informed what general rules were indicated by the laws of the human frame, acknowledged that he had hitherto permitted his school to bathe immediately after tea. Now this is one of the worst seasons that could be selected, for most persons.

In regard to the temperature and ventilation of school rooms, no teacher will ever properly understand or discharge his duty, until a knowledge of the structure and functions of the lungs and skin shows him the importance of the subject, and what a responsibility devolves upon him. But instances might be multiplied almost indefinitely, which would illustrate the imperious necessity of having every one to whose care the formation of physical or moral character is concerned, acquainted, and intimately too, with the human constitution, and its relation to surrounding objects.

It follows, of course, that those who are concerned in the instruction either of the young or the old on the Sabbath, should not remain ignorant on this subject. I am much deceived, however, if some of the greatest mistakes arising from ignorance of physiology, are not made here. A minister might almost as well wear out a

fine pair of lungs in preaching to the wind, as in attempting to gain the attention of a set of hearers who have just eaten a hearty dinner, on the Sabbath, especially if they are people who are in the habit of using a great deal of exercise in the progress of their ordinary occupations. Would he labor with any considerable hope of doing good, his first step must be to try to break up the wretched custom of gorging ourselves with food on this day; whether by an increase of variety to tempt the palate, or simply an increase of quantity. Laboring people often say, they feel a keener appetite on Sunday than on other days; but it arises rather from ennui: at least it is a *morbid* feeling, and should never be indulged.

Where the arrangements for the Sabbath-school instruction of children and youth are such that they are kept almost constantly either in the class, or at public services, from morning to evening, in addition to the great danger of disgusting them with the whole subject, and making them skeptics, there is danger of injuring the health, particularly when the pupils attend, (as they usually do,) other schools during the week. For it involves, almost of necessity, among many other evils, one species of neglect which I do not recollect to have seen noticed. Sitting six hours a day, seven days in the week, must, with children under ten years of age, in a long course of years, do much to favor a want of proper action in the stomach and intestinal canal generally; and though in vigorous constitutions, which, in early life especially, are able, in part, to ward off the evil, the consequences may not for some time be apparent, yet a day of reckoning must come. Although 'sentence against an evil work be not executed speedily,' yet the curse cannot be evaded forever. I do not hesitate to affirm that many of the evils of dyspepsia, if they do not have their origin in the neglect to which I refer, are greatly confirmed by it. Constipation is most troublesome to those dyspeptics, other things being equal, who were most confined to the school bench in early life.

The almost universal ignorance on a subject so immeasurably important, must no longer be tolerated. Something effectual must be done, and done immediately. Where is he who in the spirit of Brougham — though with but half his influence — and in view of the usefulness of physiological science to all classes of the community, will determine that not only every student in our colleges, high schools, and common schools, but every man, woman and child in the land shall be enlightened? Let him but resolve, and the work is half accomplished.

In the appendix to the 'First Annual Report of the Society for promoting Manual Labor in Literary Institutions,' a valuable work recently published, and every page of which goes to prove

the necessity of a knowledge of our own physical frames, we find the following eloquent language on this subject:

'Why is not the science of physiology taught in all our colleges? Astronomy, natural philosophy, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, and botany are not neglected. The students are required to become familiar with the air they breathe, the water they drink, the fire that warms them, and the dust they tread on. They must know something, forsooth, about "spots on the sun," eclipses, "northern lights," "meteoric stones," the "milky way," the great bear, the little bear, comets' tails, Saturn's ring, and Jupiter's moons; they must know all about the variations of the needle, the tides, the trade winds, the Gulf Stream, the phenomena of earthquakes, thunder, volcanic eruptions; why a stone falls *down* rather than *up*, and what flattened the poles. All this is very well. But what do our graduates know of the structure of *their bodies*, the functions of the different organs, and their laws of relation? Just about as much as the Peripatetics did of ideas, when they supposed them little filmy things which floated off from objects, and somehow wormed their way through the senses, and finally stuck fast on the pineal gland of the brain, much like barnacles.

'Modern education conducts the student round the universe; bids him scale the heights of nature, and drop his fathom line among the deep soundings of her abyss, compassing the vast and analyzing the minute; and yet never conducts him over the boundary of that world of living wonders which constitutes him *man*, and is at once the abode of his mind, the instrument of its action, and the subject of its sway. Why, I ask, shall everything else be studied, while the human frame is passed over as a noteless, forgotten thing—that master-piece of divine mechanism, pronounced by its author "wonderfully made," and "curiously wrought;"—a temple fitted up by God, and gloriously garnished for the residence of an immortal inhabitant, bearing his own image, and a candidate for a "building of God, eternal in the heavens."

I hope this fervid appeal will be attentively read and pondered. There are thousands of students now prosecuting a course of study in our higher seminaries and colleges, which occupies from six to nine years. Other tens of thousands of each sex, a large proportion of whom are destined to be mothers or teachers, are spending from one to four years, in high schools or academies alone. New-England and New-York have nearly a million of their sons and daughters in common schools four to eight months in a year, for ten or twelve years together. Cannot a single month of all this time be set apart for studying the architecture of this 'earthly house of our tabernacle,'—its simplicity, beauty, harmony, majesty? Shall even the infant of two years old be taught the laws of

matter, and the philosophy of motion 4,000, nay, 95,000,000 miles distant, and the man of thirty, forty or sixty be ignorant of the simplest laws of motion which obtain within him; or whether, indeed, there be any motion? Such neglect in education, be the fault where, or whose it may, is wholly unreasonable and inexcusable. The voice of every friend of man must be raised against it.

The first question which naturally arises is, Where shall we begin? My reply, though it may seem paradoxical, is, *Everywhere.* It has already been shown, that parents, and especially mothers, are as deeply concerned as any class of the community; probably they are more so. But though they could be made to feel its importance, we can hardly expect them to pay much attention to this science amidst a pressure of domestic duties. What they *can* do, however, they *ought.* Then the number of young ladies in our various female seminaries is by no means inconsiderable; and these should be thoroughly instructed. Young men in every grade of schools, from the highest to the lowest, destined for the most part to become parents or teachers, should also understand physiology. And to none is this knowledge more indispensable, personally, than to those who are destined to become public speakers. If young men who enter the ministry knew the structure of their lungs, it appears to me they would not so often abuse them; and there would be less going abroad in pursuit of health.

But how shall the knowledge in question be communicated? The same method of instruction which is successfully taken with students in medicine, would undoubtedly be more successful than any other in colleges and the higher classes of select schools and academies. It will not be indispensable to introduce youth at once to the dissecting room, for several substitutes for this may be devised. Besides the dried preparations, portions of the system preserved in spirits, &c, art has furnished us with the *mannikin*, or artificial man, so ingeniously formed as to show the structure of most if not all the parts of the body, nearly as well as can be shown by means of the recent subject. Every institution of learning from the common school to the university should possess one; and teachers should be taught, or should teach themselves, how to use it. Their expense, however, will probably exclude them from common schools for some time to come, were there no other objections against them.

Yet much, very much, may be accomplished in another way. It is easy to demonstrate many truths by comparative anatomy; I mean by the dissection of such animals as we can conveniently obtain. When the lungs, for example, are the subject of study, let the physician be called upon to direct to some animal in which

these organs most nearly resemble those of man, and so of other portions of the human frame.

Is it objected to the study of physiology in our schools that there is much prejudice to combat? So there always has been, on the introduction of every branch of science which deeply involved the happiness of our race. Scepticism has been seen — or rather *imagined* — stalking in the train of almost every *new thing* since the discovery of printing gave a mighty impulse to knowledge, and enabled us to disseminate it widely and rapidly. Within our own time physiology, geology and phrenology, have been successively proscribed. But these facts should only stimulate us to make the more effort, and the greater sacrifice.

As to the charge of indelicacy, much depends on the *spirit* in which this study is conducted; and something, it is true, on the manner. But let it once become as common as botany, and we should think no more of any impropriety, than we do while studying that science. It is well known that objections were once urged against the pursuit of this branch in schools made up of both sexes. It is probably the mystery and falsehood which are so early thrown around some of the animal functions and laws, that contributes more than anything else to lead youth to future irregularities.

In the introduction of physiology into our schools, it is, however, by no means desirable to disturb the feelings, even of the falsely delicate. There are a thousand ways of managing this matter. I have already alluded to the *munnikin* and to the study of *detached portions* of the system; and though it might be useful to take a general view of the whole at setting out, it is by no means indispensable. We may spend a considerable time in the study of those organs which are common to us all; and if we never should proceed further, I mean in mixed schools, even *this* knowledge would be invaluable. The digestive system, embracing several important viscera, the functions of respiration, circulation, secretion, absorption and *waste*, if there be such a function as the latter, the brain and nervous system, the organs of sight, hearing, &c, — these embrace a wide range of topics; and a thorough knowledge of these, alone, would be of more real practical benefit to mankind than that of many things upon which we spend years of the best part of our lives, often to very little purpose. This information may be communicated, to a considerable extent, in familiar conversational lectures, accompanied by demonstrations; and the imagination of the pupil should be aided by drawings, models, &c. As an auxiliary, and sometimes perhaps as a substitute for lectures, small and cheap tracts, written in a plain and familiar style, and divested of technical terms, would certainly be very useful. One tract might be devoted to an account of the lungs, another might treat exclusively of the liver, the heart, or the brain. In this way,

too, I mean by presenting the subject in *parts*, we may avoid all those objections, which might otherwise be brought against presenting the *whole system* to a young mind.

But for those who are duly prepared for a thorough knowledge of the whole subject, as in colleges and other high schools, and for *all*, as soon as the public sentiment will permit, regular and complete courses of instruction should be given by teachers, or those professional gentlemen whose services can be obtained for the purpose, at least once a year. In female seminaries it is highly desirable that the teachers themselves should perform the task; but where this is impossible, an intelligent and judicious physician should be substituted; and it is desirable on some accounts that he should be a parent.

There are not a few who suppose that physicians are hostile to the diffusion of physiological science. The reverse of this is the fact. The greatest trials of a laborious avocation, grow out of the popular ignorance on these subjects. No men, as a body, would do more, or make greater sacrifices to remove the mists of ignorance and superstition which brood over the popular mind and render man the greatest mystery to himself in the universe, than they. That it would diminish their business, and render a smaller number of physicians necessary, is undoubtedly the fact. But the same may be said of the progress of knowledge of any kind, as well as of improvement in general. Physicians know that just in proportion as intemperance can be put down, there will be less disease in the world; but does this prevent their exerting themselves? Let facts answer. Have they not been foremost in the temperance cause? And where has their zeal in any measure abated?

There is one more objection to the study of physiology, which deserves a moment's consideration. It is said that so certainly as people begin to attend to this subject, they begin to fancy themselves diseased; and to regulate their diet, take medicine, &c. Now that it should lead them to regulate their diet so far as to form judicious *habits*, is no objection to its introduction, but the contrary; for few things are more necessary. But it is a mistake to suppose that the study of our own *frame* induces us to fancy ourselves sick, and to take medicine. It is the study of *diseases*, or rather the mere *reading* of *books on practice*, and on the *nature and power of medicine*, BEFORE WE KNOW ANYTHING ABOUT OUR OWN STRUCTURE, that produces these results.

In short, there *are* no *weighty* objections to the course of study here recommended. For so long as we have bodies, it is our *duty* to understand them. If there be among us any individuals who have so far become etherial as not to require food, drink, rest, air, warmth, and exercise, these, and these alone, are justified in neglecting the study of Physiology.

Art. II. — Youthful and Adult Population of the United States.

In a former article, we examined the last census of the United States, in reference to our juvenile population. We found that the whole number of children between 5 and 15, the age usually assigned for attendance on common schools, was 2,841,406. Of these, 977,392 are in New England and New York; and according to the best estimates, are believed to be in a great measure provided with schools for elementary instruction. It is, however, deeply to be regretted, that the means of instruction are so inadequate, the number of incompetent teachers so great, the methods of teaching so imperfect, and the whole influence of these nurseries of our country so far below what it should be, both on the intellectual and the moral character of the pupils. It is painful to find, that so many judicious parents deem it necessary to establish private schools for their children rather than avail themselves of these, gratuitously*. The fact that so much is done in organizing a system of schools which provides for all, is an encouragement to new efforts for their improvement. When so broad and noble a foundation is laid, and the materials for the whole building are thus provided to our hand, it will be dishonorable indeed if the superstructure is left to decay — an unfinished ruin. Yet we find many of the friends of education anticipating its speedy fall.

But in examining other portions of the United States, we find scarcely a foundation laid. In some states, not one child in ten can enjoy the means of instruction; in others, not one in five; and we considered it safe to assume, that in the states south and west of New York and New Jersey, not more than one third of the children were furnished with common school instruction, leaving 1,400,000 of the whole population entirely unprovided for.

We will now extend a similar course of inquiry to those between fifteen and twenty years of age, a class not less interesting than those already under consideration. Indeed, in some points of view they are even more interesting to the friends of education; for it is in these years that the impressions previously made upon the mind and the character are to be strengthened or obliterated; and the powers and propensities which have been developed are to receive

* In one portion of one of our best instructed States, we were assured, that scarcely any parent of respectable character would send his children to the public schools unless compelled by poverty. We have already mentioned an instance in which the friends of education in a whole county, felt themselves compelled to organize new means of instruction, at their own private expense.

a direction not likely to be changed in subsequent life. The immediate necessities of this class, are not indeed so urgent as those of an earlier age; but to neglect them at this moment, when cultivation begins to have the most important influence, would be like deserting the garden as soon as summer has expanded its blossoms, and would put at hazard all the fruits of autumn.

The table on the next page will show the numbers of this class, and of every portion of our population, arranged according to age.

In regard to the male sex, the need of something more than common school education is obvious; and public opinion is, in some measure, settled as to its extent. It is now generally admitted, that a sufficient number of our young men to supply the three professions should receive a collegiate as well as an academical education, and we regret that the period for the whole preparatory course is usually limited to the age of twenty. If we suppose that one person is required in each profession to every 1,000 inhabitants, and if we add one more for a teacher, and another as a literary man, or a public officer, at least five persons of collegiate education will be necessary, to every 1,000 inhabitants. This would require for the whole United States, that there should be 10,000 young men in our colleges, in order to supply the white population only. And this estimate does not provide any means of collegiate instruction for those who may be destined merely to the management of inherited property, or the superintendence of extensive business establishments, who thus exert great influence in the community, and should be among its best informed members. Who does not see that ignorance and narrowness of mind among our great merchants and manufacturers, may be the source of evils which no other influence can remedy? To meet this obvious demand, we have now but 5,535 of our youth enjoying collegiate instruction? The remainder of our professional and influential men must, therefore, be limited to such an education as is usually obtained at an academy, or a high school.

But leaving out of view this part of the subject, and deducting the whole 10,000 destined to professions, what means of instruction ought to be provided for the rest of our young men between 15 and 20? There are many of our youth whose need of a liberal education, of a kind unlike that of our colleges, has long been recognised, by the friends of improvement, and by some of our towns. A series of efforts has been made to provide schools for them, which have met with only partial success. But passing by these, the whole of this class will then amount to 600,000, all of whom are to be electors, and *any* of whom *may be* officers of our government. Shall they continue to be limited in their acquisitions to the

Population of the United States, arranged according to Age.

	Whole white Population.	Per ct. 5 to 15	Whole No. under 15 years.	Pr ct. whole pop.	From 15 to 20 years.	Pr ct	Whole No. under 20 years.	Pr ct. whole pop.	From 20 to 40 years.	Pr ct. whole pop.	From 40 to 50 years.	Pr ct. whole pop.	Whole pop. over 50 years.	Pr ct. whole pop.
Maine,	398,263	26.6	172,431	43.3	44,748	11.2	217,179	54.5	114,541	28·7	28,730	7.2	37,713	9.4
New Hampshire,	268,721	26	104,539	38.8	29,670	11	134,209	49.9	76,141	28.3	22,668	8.4	37,453	13.9
Massachusetts,	603,359	23	218,707	36	67,240	11	285,947	47.5	192,712	31.9	50,567	8.2	83,323	13.8
Rhode Island,	93,621	23.5	35,397	37.8	10,948	11.2	46,335	49.3	28,763	30.7	7,536	8.	10,987	11.7
Connecticut,	289,603	23.8	106,500	36.7	32,487	10.9	138,987	47.9	87,251	30.1	24,809	8.5	38,546	13.3
Vermont,	279,776	24	115,639	41.3	31,535	11.2	141,174	52.6	81,424	29.1	11,439	4.	29,834	10.6
	1,933,343	24.9	753,213	39.2	216,618	11.2	969,831	50.1	580,832	30	145,749	7.	237,856	12.2
New York,	1,868,061	31	813,789	43.5	206,918	10.7	1,020,697	54	563,309	30.1	133,186	7.1	150,869	7.6
New Jersey,	300,266	26.5	128,703	42.8	33,907	10.6	162,610	54.1	86,672	28.8	22,050	7.3	29,035	9.6
Pennsylvania,	1,309,900	26.8	581,180	45	149,089	11	730,269	55.7	382,033	29.1	91,805	7.	106,613	8.1
Delaware,	57,605	27.4	25,073	43.5	6,565	8.8	31,638	53.5	17,377	30.1	4,083	7.	4,502	7.8
Maryland,	291,108	25	119,437	41	33,798	8.	153,235	52.6	91,477	31.4	21,912	7.1	24,484	8.4
	3,826,940	23.5	1,668,182	38.5	430,267	11.2	2,098,449	48.4	1,140,858	29.8	272,986	7.1	315,503	8.2
Virginia,	694,310	27	315,196	45	77,426	11.1	392,622	56.5	195,950	28 2	46,131	6.6	58,597	8.4
N. Carolina,	472,843	27.4	220,107	46.5	52,850	11.1	274,959	57.7	128,640	27.2	31,426	6.6	39,820	8.4
S. Carolina,	257,863	27.6	120,254	46.6	29,083	11.2	149,337	54	71,437	27.7	16,802	6.3	20,287	7.8
	1,425,016	27.2	655,557	46	159,359	11.1	814,916	57.1	396,027	27.7	94,359	6.6	118,704	6.7
Georgia,	296,806	27 8	146,856	49.5	31,638	10.6	174,494	60.1	81,010	20.5	17,969	6.3	19,313	6.8
Alabama,	190,406	28	97,608	51.7	19,460	10.2	117,068	62	51,845	26.7	10,724	5.6	10,759	5.6
Mississippi,	70,443	27.6	34,734	49	7,276	10.3	42,010	59	20,190	28.6	4,158	5.8	4,085	5.8
Louisiana,	89,231	25.7	38,637	43	9,034	10.1	47,671	53	29,369	32.9	6,614	7.6	5,577	6.2
Tennessee,	535,746	29.5	272,916	51	59,863	11.1	332,779	62.1	136,608	25.4	30,372	5.6	35,987	6.7
Kentucky,	517,787	28.3	251,882	48.6	58,640	11.3	316,522	61.1	141,534	27.2	31,442	6.	37,722	7.2
Ohio,	928,329	27.8	445,282	48	103,773	11.1	550,055	59 2	250,104	26.9	58,658	6.3	51,512	5.5
Indiana,	389,399	25.6	177,234	45.5	35,740	9	212,974	54.7	88,462	22.7	19,334	4.9	18,638	5.3
Illinois,	155,061	28.4	79,286	51	15,823	10.1	95,109	61.3	42,842	27.6	8,377	5.4	7,733	4.9
Missouri,	114,795	28	59,049	51.4	11,404	9.9	70,453	61.3	32,143	28	6,360	5·5	5,839	5.
	3,288,023	27.7	1,603,484	48.7	352,651	10.7	1,957,135	50.9	774,097	23.5	193,998	5.8	197,145	5.
Territories,	102,965	25	45,883	45	10,555	10.2	56,438	54.8	35,054	32.9	6,654	6.	5,583	5 4
Total,	10,526,248	27	4,786,320	44.9	1,169,450	11.1	5,905,770	56.1	3,022,964	29.1	723,886	6.8	873,028	8.2

elementary branches of common school education? Can we excuse ourselves from imparting to them, at least, some more extended views of the past and present state of the world, than this will furnish them? Ought they not to be well instructed in their duties and their rights as citizens, and members of a community? On this broad ground, we think every young man of this age, even if destined to a life of labor, ought to spend half of the period between 15 and 20, under some course of instruction. We believe it will enable him to become a more successful artizan, as well as a more valuable member of the community. It is also highly important that some means of instruction should be provided in the arts of life. Even in some countries on the continent of Europe, where a system has been organized with a view to prepare each individual to be a productive member of the community, special schools are provided for agriculture, for the management of forests, and mines; for engineering, the construction of roads and bridges, and for the respective arts, *as a part of the national policy.* In a country increasing so rapidly as ours, it is inexcusable to neglect the various branches of knowledge which are necessary to the proper management of our resources.

But in addition to all other claims, we need a body of 50,000 teachers to instruct the white children of our country between 5 and 15; and we have not, probably, more than 20,000 now employed. Of these, a great number are incompetent: one half, probably, only engage in the occupation for a time; so that a number would be likely to retire every year, to seek some more lucrative employment; and there is every year an increasing demand for instruction for the neglected portion of our juvenile population, as well as for their increasing numbers. Indeed, should we attempt to provide such schools as are worthy of a free people, for every child in the community, an annual supply of 10,000 teachers will be indispensable for some years to come. This object alone, will require that 30,000 at least, should be in course of education. We need scarcely add that their whole time between 15 and 20 ought to be devoted to preparation for this important task; for on them, it will devolve, to lay the foundations of our moral and political welfare.

Adopting then the lowest estimates, we cannot be considered as well provided with the means of instruction, unless we are furnished with regular, secondary schools or academies, for one half of the male population between 15 and 20, in addition to suitable courses of evening instruction, or lectures on general knowledge, and the arts.

The wants of the females in this class of our population, will be variously appreciated by different persons. Some suppose that they need nothing more than common school instruction, and that

the remainder of their youth should be spent in becoming familiar with the economy of the household. Others, on the contrary, maintain that they need the same course of intellectual development and instruction with the other sex.

We are inclined to regard both opinions as extremes. We would remind those who dread the intellectual improvement of the sex, that woman, in civilized society, is not the mere domestic drudge of the other sex. On the contrary, in her duties as a mother, — duties which no father can perform, — she is their earliest guardian and educator. She impresses their *first ideas*, she inspires their *first feelings*, and forms their *first habits*, — ideas, and feelings, and habits, which have been known to triumph over all other influences, and whose recollection has brought tears into eyes, that never wept with pity, or with sorrow. It is to her treatment, that we may generally trace the physical and moral character. She often decides whether the future citizen shall be a victim of disease, or an able member of society, a temperate man or a sot, a blessing or a curse to those around him. But she is the companion of manhood, as well as the guardian of infancy; and in this situation, she exerts an influence, often paramount to every other, over the character of families and the community. How often has the well-educated mother saved a family from the ignorance and vice which would have been their only inheritance from a father; and thus preserved the community from evils which cannot be calculated! Need we say that the proper management of the bodies, and minds, and hearts of the young, demands intelligence and knowledge; that she, who is to exert so powerful an influence on the community, ought herself to be well instructed? It is a remark of an experienced and accurate observer of human nature, that if the world is ever to be made wiser and better, it must be by the influence of woman, *well educated*, and disciplined.

While all this will be readily admitted, in regard to some classes of females, we shall be told that it is unnecessary, nay, injurious, to those who are destined to labor, to cultivate their minds. But let us recollect that it is precisely this class of females who exert most influence as mothers, who have the most numerous families, and thus form the character of *the people;* and *the people*, be it remembered, are the rulers of our country. If any have a right to education, surely it is this part of the community. If any deny it, we would ask: Is it wise, is it safe, to be indifferent to their character? And let it also be remembered, that in the independent classes of society, as they are termed, mothers are, in fact, dependent upon laboring females to assist them in the care of their own children; and that ignorance, and superstition, and vice, may leave impressions on their minds, which no subsequent efforts can efface. Who has not seen such results?

But in addition to these common claims of the whole sex, we need many of them as teachers. Our schools, for early childhood, should be confided to no other hands; and the mass of influence in our female schools, should be of this kind. And for these self-denying efforts, let us recollect, that we must look chiefly to the less-favored classes of society; and that we can discover those who are qualified, only by instructing them. It must also be remembered that there is much important practical knowledge to be acquired, for which the mind is not sufficiently matured before sixteen or seventeen years of age. And we cannot but hope, that an essay which precedes this, will satisfy many, that there is knowledge important to every member of the community, for which no provision has yet been made.

On the other hand, physiology will bear us out in the assertion, that the very frame of woman was formed for less intellectual effort than that of man. In a nervous system of so great susceptibility, it produces far more speedy and dangerous exhaustion. For ourselves, we question whether females, generally, ought to devote more than half the period between fifteen and twenty, to intellectual acquisitions. We would object most strenuously to that system which obliges many to compress into a few months, or a year, the whole course of study, by which they are expected to qualify themselves to be members of the well-educated classes of the community.

In view of all these circumstances, we think it cannot be deemed unreasonable by any, to claim for the future mothers of our country, schools of a higher grade, sufficient for one third of the number between 15 and 20 years of age. This class amounted to 596,254 in 1830, and on this estimate schools would be requisite for 198,751. If we assign 40 to a school, they would need 4,968 schools, of which New-England would require 500, and New-York an equal number. We have indeed no statistical information on this point, but we are persuaded no one will suppose that we have one half of this number.

But let us inquire into such facts as are within our reach. The only information of an official kind is concerning the number of high schools and academies, without distinction of sex. Many of these institutions receive females, but more, we believe, are devoted exclusively to the other sex. We will assume, for the present, that the whole number of pupils taught in them are males.

At this period of life, the number of males usually equals that of females. In the State of Maine there are 22,000 males of this age, and by our supposition there should be schools for 11,000. Official reports inform us that there are 29 academies, and 1,200 pupils. If we suppose the number of private schools, of a higher

order, equal to double this number, we shall have provision only for 3,600, or *one seventh*, instead of one half of the young men.

New-Hampshire is stated, in a recent document, to have 1,500 pupils in 32 academies. She has 14,000 males between 15 and 20 and an equal number of females.

In the State of Massachusetts, standing higher than any other for its means of education, the whole number of pupils in academies and private schools is estimated, by the accurate editor of the Quarterly Register, from partial reports of 99 towns, at 24,852, amounting only to two thirds of the male population, between 15 and 20. It is probable, however, that one half of the private schools are merely elementary; we know that many of the pupils of the academies are from other States, and we have little reason to suppose that more than 12,000, one fifth of the whole number between 15 and 20, are natives of the State, or one third of the males, supposing them to be all of this sex.

In the State of New-York, we learn from an estimate of B. F. Butler, Esq., that there are 3,835 pupils in 56 academies, of whom 2,000 are engaged in classical studies. If we suppose double the number of private schools of a higher grade, we shall have 11,505 of the youth of New-York out of 103,000, between 15 and 20, attending to the higher branches of a common education; and if we suppose ten times the number, it is utterly unworthy of this great and liberal State, to furnish these advantages only to one fifth part of its male youth.

Such is the condition of some of those States of the Union, which are best provided with means of instruction, and most of which have common schools for one in four of their population. How little have we to expect for the youth in those States where there are no means of common instruction for two thirds or three fourths of the children! If the most favored do not afford more than one fifth of their youth the means of advancing beyond the most ordinary education, there is no reason to suppose that one in ten in other States are acquiring any knowledge beyond the mere elements; and we have a mass of 400,000 youth, thus imperfectly preparing for the duties of men and citizens.

But we know that many of these academies and schools include female pupils. If we deduct these, or if we estimate the schools necessary for them, this dark picture becomes darker by many shades; and a mass of uncultivated mind appears among us, which shrouds the prospects of knowledge and religion in deeper gloom.

Is it just, is it politic — we need not ask, is it worthy of us as a nation — to leave our youth in this condition? But we trust the feelings of our readers need no other excitement than that of facts.

It will be said, perhaps, that we are not *able* to do more. We deny it. We appeal to the case of individual towns and communities, who *have done more.* We would point to the vast amount of superfluities which we *are able* to provide. We point to our manual labor schools, as furnishing a complete answer; and we demand of every man who has any concern, or feels any interest in the future welfare of our country, that he leave no means untried to bring within the reach of every young man the treasures of knowledge.

But the increase of the remainder of our population, above 15, is a topic of no small interest; for we should have plans, and means, and associations for the improvement of these also, if it were only to supply the deficiency pointed out in their early instruction.

We shall find, in passing, that in this portion of our population the greatest increase takes place; for while the population under 15, between 1810 and 1830 increased only 1,932,368, or at the rate of 68 per cent, the population over 15 increased 2,732,212, or 89 per cent. This fully confirms the reply made to the alarming theory of Malthus, that our own unexampled increase is to a great extent, the mere filling up of the older ranks of society — rather the rising of the lake, than the increase of the stream.*

* We see more full evidence of this in examining the comparative numbers of the adult population in the various States. In the newest and least populous States, the number of persons over 40 amounts to 10 or 12 per cent of the whole population. In the more populous States it is 14 or 15 per cent of the whole number; and in those which have been longest settled, and are most filled up, as New Hampshire, Delaware, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, it amounts to 18 and 20 per cent. In countries which are strictly old, as in those of Europe, it is even greater than this, and it is estimated that in a complete population, the number over 45 ought to amount to one fourth of the whole. It is obvious, therefore, that some estimates which have been made of the future increase of our population are extremely doubtful, if not demonstrably incorrect. The states now reckoned as old, somewhat resemble those which are still new, in the rapidity of their increase. Thus Vermont, which increased at the rate of 81 per cent in 10 years, from 1790 to 1800, now increases only at the rate of 19 per cent in the same period. And even Ohio, which advanced at the unparalleled rate of 409 per cent, or 17.7 per cent per annum, between 1810 and 1820, is only advancing now, at the rate of 38.6 per cent in ten years, or 3.8 per cent annually. Indeed the whole population of our country which increased at first 3.6 per cent annually, only advanced at the rate of 3.3 per ct. during the last ten years, although one half of the territory is still unoccupied.

In 1830, the rate of increase in ten of the original 13 States, did not exceed 17 per cent in ten years; and in Vermont, as we have stated, it is only 19. In the remaining States, New York, and Pennsylvania, so large portions are still essentially new, it advances as it once did in these, at the rate of 40, 50, and 80 per cent. In four States, only in the Union, (Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, and Alabama) does it exceed 81 per cent; and this was the former condition of Vermont. In two of these States, it has diminished to one half, and in two others to one fourth; and one sixth of the rate at the census of 1820.

Thus instead of going on hereafter to double our population in 25 years, as has been predicted, we have every reason to expect that the period of doubling will be protracted, as in the older States; for the same causes, essentially, are in operation. If we add together the rate of increase of the whole population in 11 of the

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The whole population in 1810 amounted to 7,754,215. The most favorable rate of human mortality which can be allowed, is one death annually to every forty inhabitants, or one fourth of the population every ten years; and many authors do not consider less than one in thirtysix admissible. The mortality among the population of 1820 could not, therefore, have amounted to less than 1,938,662, on the most favorable estimate; leaving as survivors of 1830 only 5,815,662. All those under 10 years of age in 1830, amounting to 3,472,730, must of course have been born since that period; and we must look for the survivors among those who were over 10 years. These amount to 7,098,518, or 1,282,856 more than could have been born in the country on any rational calculation of mortality. There is no mode of accounting for their origin but from foreign immigration, and we are driven to the necessity of admitting, that we have an annual influx of foreigners to the amount of 128,285; or 10,690 per month, and 356 daily. It appears from this calculation that we have a regular addition to our adult population equal to that made to our juvenile population. And we would take this opportunity to observe, that as these must have brought with them a considerable number of children, of every age, the whole amount of internal increase is much lower than it has yet been estimated.

But we cannot, unfortunately, congratulate ourselves with being thus spared the amount of labor and means necessary to educate so many of our inhabitants. European immigration is not now, as formerly, from the best classes of the community. On the contrary, the government and individuals of foreign countries are employing our country as a convenient receptacle for the most ignorant, and too often the most vicious of their subjects and dependents. A large number are unquestionably ignorant of the very elements of knowledge. A still larger number, who have the key of knowledge, have never had time, or opportunity, to gain access to its treasures. Very many are entirely ignorant of our language; and few of

original States, we find that the average of the whole amounts only to 1.3 per cent per annum, which would require 80 years for doubling; and should we assume the highest rate among these, that of Vermont, which is 1.9 per cent, it would still require 50 years.

We shall be told indeed, that these are the States which furnish emigrants for the remainder. This is not true of all; nor is the increase greatest in those, whose population is least disposed to emigrate. On the other hand, the principle which is maintained by Sadler, in his reply to Malthus, is confirmed by a reference to our own census, that the increase is greater, in proportion as the population of a given territory is less. And when we combine with this, the striking fact, that years of depopulation by disease or famine, have been followed, so far as we have records of the result, by an extraordinary increase, we cannot estimate at a high rate, the probable loss on this score.

them have the least preparation for their duties, as citizens of a free country. They have, on the contrary, a mass of prejudices and superstitions, national, political and religious, far more dangerous and difficult to overcome, than the ignorance or weakness of infancy; and demanding more time and more effort for their cure.

Here then is a large and important class, who must be educated before they are fitted to become citizens of a free country, for whom other means than schools, or academies, or colleges are to be provided, and for whom we know not that any benevolent interest has yet been excited. With regard to them, immediate action is more necessary even, than with regard to children; for in two years they may become naturalized citizens, members of the elective body who govern our country. Let us suppose that half of them know how to read our language, how important is it that there be *adult schools*, (both evening and Sunday schools) where the rest may acquire it. How useful would it be, if social institutions of the character of Lyceums were established, with lectures and discussions calculated to give them a knowledge of our political and social institutions, to compare them with those of the old world, and to combat and dissipate the local prejudices and superstitions of a secular kind which they bring with them. Would that the advocates of improvement were half as active in their efforts with this increasing class of our community, as the political partizans are, in enlisting them under the banner of a faction. And could Christian benevolence be roused to provide some means for dissipating that moral darkness, in which most of those who now come to us from Europe have been shrouded from infancy, to purify the thick atmosphere of moral pollution which they have always breathed, and which still envelopes them, might we not see the catalogue of crimes increasing with less fearful rapidity? — might we not hope that we should go on less rapidly, in adopting the vices which are desolating the old world? No one doubts that most of these persons come from an atmosphere of moral infection, of which none but he who has breathed it has any conception. 'Truth is fallen in the streets,' purity is scarcely valued, and the law of selfishness is the ordinary standard of morals. Humanity and policy admit no 'quarantine.' Do not both demand, most loudly, the immediate and earnest application of *every* process to disinfect and to heal; and is not the demand enforced by the injunctions of religion?

How great a work is to be accomplished, and how numerous and active a body of agents is necessary to inform the public mind on this important point, to arouse public feeling, to establish, and organize, and sustain the schools and institutions necessary to preserve us from descending to the grave of nations! For this we must look chiefly to that portion of our population who are in

the vigor of life, between 20 and 40 or 50 years of age. Among these we must generally obtain our teachers, and professors, and agents, in every useful institution, and every philanthropic enterprise. It is more common in our country than in any other perhaps, to attempt a new enterprise after the age of 40, although many examples lead us to believe it hazardous to health and usefulness, to change entirely our plans and habits of action, at so late a period. The higher divisions of our census are by ten years. The class between 40 and 50 amounts to less than half the number between 20 and 30. If we suppose, therefore, that the period between 25 and 50 is that of the most active efforts, the deduction to be made from those under 25 will be equivalent to the addition of those between 40 and 50. The column of the table containing those between 20 and 40 will therefore give us nearly the number of individuals on whom we must rely, as the most active laborers in the cause of improvement.

In the whole of the United States this class amounts to 3,012,964, or about one third of our whole population, one half of whom are males. Of these, one third are in the five New-England States and New-York, one third in the five States north of Maryland and the Ohio river, and the remainder in the States south of those. It is a fact that should not be left unnoticed, that while the proportion of active population is greatest in the northeastern States, the demands for useful activity are greatest and most urgent, at the west and south. Not only is the number of those in ignorance far greater, but in the order of Providence, the children are more numerous. And while we are comparatively so well supplied, the demand for an annual increase of effort is far less; for while the juvenile population at the north advanced only at the rate of 10 per cent in the last ten years, that at the south increased 58 per cent. We cannot but regard this as establishing a powerful claim on the social and christian principles of the active population of the north; and we rejoice that it is so extensively felt and answered.

But while the class of persons in middle life form the most active portion of the community, they are also subjects for education, in reference to their own character, as well as to the duties devolving upon them. It is a prejudice which is the highest proof of ignorance, the strongest evidence that a new course of '*schooling*' is necessary, to suppose that education is finished, that nothing remains to be acquired at 20. The mind is but prepared for the most important acquisitions, those of a directly practical character. All previous study should have been directed to the point of procuring, and learning to use, the instruments for future pursuits, of preparing and strengthening the individuals to engage in what constitutes the real business of life, the application of knowledge to

useful purposes. The knowledge of the world of materials, and of men, on whom he is to act, is as indispensable as that of the instruments he is to employ, and he will lose even what he has gained, if it be not called into exercise. Instances have occurred, in a country as well instructed as Switzerland, in which young men who had spent their childhood at school, and had then been devoted to labor, in a country where books are scarce, and a social institution for improvement almost unknown, have forgotten to read! Such have been sent by their towns to a public seminary, to be prepared as teachers, and have been obliged to begin with perfecting themselves in the alphabet. If the mere elements of knowledge can thus escape in a few years, how can we hope that the various branches now taught in our schools, and considered indispensable to every man, will be retained, unless repetition or exercise is employed to refresh the memory. It is painful to observe, generally, in countries where instruction thus necessarily terminates with the school, the intellectual degradation of the laboring classes, and their complete absorption in the mere wants and gratifications of animal nature. We are assured by physicians, that, on physiological principles, some exercise of the brain is indispensable even to perfect the body itself; and that the entire inaction of the mind gives new strength to the animal appetites and passions, and tends directly to degrade and brutalize the whole man. On the other hand, not a few examples have occurred, in which men who had no instruction before the age of 20, have become eminent in church and state, and these instances would, doubtless, be much more numerous, if special means were provided for them. But those who know the extent and the value of knowledge need no such argument. They know that we can at best but enter the field at this age; and they will not forget, that the period for acquisition *in the mass of the community* does not extend much beyond 40.

Here then, is a wide and important sphere for associations for mutual improvement, and for those interesting courses of lectures which have been given in our large towns. Regular lecturers can be procured, only where literary or professional men are so numerous that they are not absorbed in their occupations. The only mode practicable for the country at large, is to establish some association on the principle of the Lyceum, each of whose members shall be expected to call into requisition his own stock of knowledge, in his own sphere, and to communicate it to others, and engage with them in some discussion, or other exercise, which shall impart to all, the benefits of their united experience. We have known a collection of heads of families, among whom not a few were grey-headed, assembling to be mutual instructors in the study

the remainder of their youth should be spent in becoming familiar with the economy of the household. Others, on the contrary, maintain that they need the same course of intellectual development and instruction with the other sex.

We are inclined to regard both opinions as extremes. We would remind those who dread the intellectual improvement of the sex, that woman, in civilized society, is not the mere domestic drudge of the other sex. On the contrary, in her duties as a mother, — duties which no father can perform, — she is their earliest guardian and educator. She impresses their *first ideas*, she inspires their *first feelings*, and forms their *first habits*, — ideas, and feelings, and habits, which have been known to triumph over all other influences, and whose recollection has brought tears into eyes, that never wept with pity, or with sorrow. It is to her treatment, that we may generally trace the physical and moral character. She often decides whether the future citizen shall be a victim of disease, or an able member of society, a temperate man or a sot, a blessing or a curse to those around him. But she is the companion of manhood, as well as the guardian of infancy; and in this situation, she exerts an influence, often paramount to every other, over the character of families and the community. How often has the well-educated mother saved a family from the ignorance and vice which would have been their only inheritance from a father; and thus preserved the community from evils which cannot be calculated! Need we say that the proper management of the bodies, and minds, and hearts of the young, demands intelligence and knowledge; that she, who is to exert so powerful an influence on the community, ought herself to be well instructed? It is a remark of an experienced and accurate observer of human nature, that if the world is ever to be made wiser and better, it must be by the influence of woman, *well educated*, and disciplined.

While all this will be readily admitted, in regard to some classes of females, we shall be told that it is unnecessary, nay, injurious, to those who are destined to labor, to cultivate their minds. But let us recollect that it is precisely this class of females who exert most influence as mothers, who have the most numerous families, and thus form the character of *the people*; and *the people*, be it remembered, are the rulers of our country. If any have a right to education, surely it is this part of the community. If any deny it, we would ask: Is it wise, is it safe, to be indifferent to their character? And let it also be remembered, that in the independent classes of society, as they are termed, mothers are, in fact, dependent upon laboring females to assist them in the care of their own children; and that ignorance, and superstition, and vice, may leave impressions on their minds, which no subsequent efforts can efface. Who has not seen such results?

But in addition to these common claims of the whole sex, we need many of them as teachers. Our schools, for early childhood, should be confided to no other hands; and the mass of influence in our female schools, should be of this kind. And for these self-denying efforts, let us recollect, that we must look chiefly to the less-favored classes of society; and that we can discover those who are qualified, only by instructing them. It must also be remembered that there is much important practical knowledge to be acquired, for which the mind is not sufficiently matured before sixteen or seventeen years of age. And we cannot but hope, that an essay which precedes this, will satisfy many, that there is knowledge important to every member of the community, for which no provision has yet been made.

On the other hand, physiology will bear us out in the assertion, that the very frame of woman was formed for less intellectual effort than that of man. In a nervous system of so great susceptibility, it produces far more speedy and dangerous exhaustion. For ourselves, we question whether females, generally, ought to devote more than half the period between fifteen and twenty, to intellectual acquisitions. We would object most strenuously to that system which obliges many to compress into a few months, or a year, the whole course of study, by which they are expected to qualify themselves to be members of the well-educated classes of the community.

In view of all these circumstances, we think it cannot be deemed unreasonable by any, to claim for the future mothers of our country, schools of a higher grade, sufficient for one third of the number between 15 and 20 years of age. This class amounted to 596,254 in 1830, and on this estimate schools would be requisite for 198,751. If we assign 40 to a school, they would need 4,968 schools, of which New-England would require 500, and New-York an equal number. We have indeed no statistical information on this point, but we are persuaded no one will suppose that we have one half of this number.

But let us inquire into such facts as are within our reach. The only information of an official kind is concerning the number of high schools and academies, without distinction of sex. Many of these institutions receive females, but more, we believe, are devoted exclusively to the other sex. We will assume, for the present, that the whole number of pupils taught in them are males.

At this period of life, the number of males usually equals that of females. In the State of Maine there are 22,000 males of this age, and by our supposition there should be schools for 11,000. Official reports inform us that there are 29 academies, and 1,200 pupils. If we suppose the number of private schools, of a higher

order, equal to double this number, we shall have provision only for 3,600, or *one seventh*, instead of one half of the young men.

New-Hampshire is stated, in a recent document, to have 1,500 pupils in 32 academies. She has 14,000 males between 15 and 20 and an equal number of females.

In the State of Massachusetts, standing higher than any other for its means of education, the whole number of pupils in academies and private schools is estimated, by the accurate editor of the Quarterly Register, from partial reports of 99 towns, at 24,852, amounting only to two thirds of the male population, between 15 and 20. It is probable, however, that one half of the private schools are merely elementary; we know that many of the pupils of the academies are from other States, and we have little reason to suppose that more than 12,000, one fifth of the whole number between 15 and 20, are natives of the State, or one third of the males, supposing them to be all of this sex.

In the State of New-York, we learn from an estimate of B. F. Butler, Esq., that there are 3,835 pupils in 56 academies, of whom 2,000 are engaged in classical studies. If we suppose double the number of private schools of a higher grade, we shall have 11,505 of the youth of New-York out of 103,000, between 15 and 20, attending to the higher branches of a common education; and if we suppose ten times the number, it is utterly unworthy of this great and liberal State, to furnish these advantages only to one fifth part of its male youth.

Such is the condition of some of those States of the Union, which are best provided with means of instruction, and most of which have common schools for one in four of their population. How little have we to expect for the youth in those States where there are no means of common instruction for two thirds or three fourths of the children! If the most favored do not afford more than one fifth of their youth the means of advancing beyond the most ordinary education, there is no reason to suppose that one in ten in other States are acquiring any knowledge beyond the mere elements; and we have a mass of 400,000 youth, thus imperfectly preparing for the duties of men and citizens.

But we know that many of these academies and schools include female pupils. If we deduct these, or if we estimate the schools necessary for them, this dark picture becomes darker by many shades; and a mass of uncultivated mind appears among us, which shrouds the prospects of knowledge and religion in deeper gloom.

Is it just, is it politic — we need not ask, is it worthy of us as a nation — to leave our youth in this condition? But we trust the feelings of our readers need no other excitement than that of facts.

It will be said, perhaps, that we are not *able* to do more. We deny it. We appeal to the case of individual towns and communities, who *have done more.* We would point to the vast amount of superfluities which we *are able* to provide. We point to our manual labor schools, as furnishing a complete answer; and we demand of every man who has any concern, or feels any interest in the future welfare of our country, that he leave no means untried to bring within the reach of every young man the treasures of knowledge.

But the increase of the remainder of our population, above 15, is a topic of no small interest; for we should have plans, and means, and associations for the improvement of these also, if it were only to supply the deficiency pointed out in their early instruction.

We shall find, in passing, that in this portion of our population the greatest increase takes place; for while the population under 15, between 1810 and 1830 increased only 1,932,368, or at the rate of 68 per cent, the population over 15 increased 2,732,212, or 89 per cent. This fully confirms the reply made to the alarming theory of Malthus, that our own unexampled increase is to a great extent, the mere filling up of the older ranks of society — rather the rising of the lake, than the increase of the stream.*

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But while the class of persons in middle life form the most active portion of the community, they are also subjects for education, in reference to their own character, as well as to the duties devolving upon them. It is a prejudice which is the highest proof of ignorance, the strongest evidence that a new course of '*schooling*' is necessary, to suppose that education is finished, that nothing remains to be acquired at 20. The mind is but prepared for the most important acquisitions, those of a directly practical character. All previous study should have been directed to the point of procuring, and learning to use, the instruments for future pursuits, of preparing and strengthening the individuals to engage in what constitutes the real business of life, the application of knowledge to

useful purposes. The knowledge of the world of materials, and of men, on whom he is to act, is as indispensable as that of the instruments he is to employ, and he will lose even what he has gained, if it be not called into exercise. Instances have occurred, in a country as well instructed as Switzerland, in which young men who had spent their childhood at school, and had then been devoted to labor, in a country where books are scarce, and a social institution for improvement almost unknown, have forgotten to read! Such have been sent by their towns to a public seminary, to be prepared as teachers, and have been obliged to begin with perfecting themselves in the alphabet. If the mere elements of knowledge can thus escape in a few years, how can we hope that the various branches now taught in our schools, and considered indispensable to every man, will be retained, unless repetition or exercise is employed to refresh the memory. It is painful to observe, generally, in countries where instruction thus necessarily terminates with the school, the intellectual degradation of the laboring classes, and their complete absorption in the mere wants and gratifications of animal nature. We are assured by physicians, that, on physiological principles, some exercise of the brain is indispensable even to perfect the body itself; and that the entire inaction of the mind gives new strength to the animal appetites and passions, and tends directly to degrade and brutalize the whole man. On the other hand, not a few examples have occurred, in which men who had no instruction before the age of 20, have become eminent in church and state, and these instances would, doubtless, be much more numerous, if special means were provided for them. But those who know the extent and the value of knowledge need no such argument. They know that we can at best but enter the field at this age; and they will not forget, that the period for acquisition *in the mass of the community* does not extend much beyond 40.

Here then, is a wide and important sphere for associations for mutual improvement, and for those interesting courses of lectures which have been given in our large towns. Regular lecturers can be procured, only where literary or professional men are so numerous that they are not absorbed in their occupations. The only mode practicable for the country at large, is to establish some association on the principle of the Lyceum, each of whose members shall be expected to call into requisition his own stock of knowledge, in his own sphere, and to communicate it to others, and engage with them in some discussion, or other exercise, which shall impart to all, the benefits of their united experience. We have known a collection of heads of families, among whom not a few were grey-headed, assembling to be mutual instructors in the study

of the Bible, which had been their companion from childhood; and finding it a source of great intellectual improvement, as well as pleasure. If this could be the result with a book thus familiar to all, a subject so constantly presented and explained, is there not reason to suppose that interest could be excited on a multitude of topics relating to the active and visible world, which are not so directly within the reach of a whole community, each one of which, however, may be familiar or accessible to some one or two persons in every village. But we need not theorise on this subject. The experience of many of our readers bears ample testimony to the fact; and to those who have no personal knowledge of this subject, proofs have been furnished in our pages, on the authority of witnesses beyond dispute, that those associations, under this and other names, which have been formed on the strict principle of mutual instruction among the less educated inhabitants of retired villages, have been uniformly the most permanent, and most useful, and agreeable. More than one individual who entered this class of adults in ignorance, has by his own efforts, in connection with similar associations, risen to respectability and influence. The farmer, the mechanic and the professional man, have in turn, given instruction, or conducted discussions, on the subjects most familiar to them; each has acquired many new ideas, and each has learnt to feel more respect and interest for the pursuits of the other. That many of these institutions have failed, is indeed an evidence that they were not well founded or well conducted. Too often, they were the mushroom results of a temporary excitement, instead of settled conviction and purposes. But the success of other efforts proves, that it does not arise from any *unavoidable* defect in the system itself. We believe that many of these failures are to be traced to the fact, that there was no building, or library, or apparatus, which could present a visible and permanent rallying point; and we question whether any one has failed, which had this foundation. But if this plan fail, we would still urge the indispensable necessity of some method in which this important portion of our population should be constantly improved.

We have thus examined the state of our white inhabitants; and while we have discovered appalling facts, we have been obliged to pass by, for the present, a mass of ignorance in the remainder of our population, over which humanity weeps, almost in despair. In reviewing the whole ground, we find, that while noble and successful efforts have been made for the improvement of education in many of our towns and districts, large portions of our population are still in the most urgent need.

It is not too much to require, agreeably to the good old regulation of New-England, *a common school for every fifty families*, and a

higher school, or academy, for every one hundred families, to give the children of our country the elements of knowledge. *A course of weekly lectures*, or a *weekly association for mutual improvement*, is as important to the adults of every neighborhood, as a school for the children; and if properly conducted, it would contribute not less to the benefit of the community; for it would not only assist them to fix and apply their elementary knowledge, but it would prepare every parent to be a teacher, and make every family a school of instruction. Ought a nation of electors to devote *less* attention than this, to the acquisition of knowledge? Can they be fitted for their high duties, at any cheaper rate? Can they be prepared even, to receive and understand the truths of the Bible, and to unite with a 'zeal according to knowledge' in diffusing its blessings to others, by less efficient means of instruction? Do not the statistics of crime and irreligion abundantly prove, that IGNORANCE is one of their most fruitful sources?

But there is an atheistical plan, which forbids the entrance of the Bible into multitudes of our schools; and under the pretence of excluding sectarianism, shuts out Christianity, and establishes the influence of *a single sect*, who would dethrone the Creator, and break every bond of social order. In such circumstances, a *Sunday school* for every neighborhood, and an adult school of the same character, to instruct the neglected sons of our republic, as well as foreigners, are indispensable to preserve among us the foundations of morality, and the principles of religion.

If these remarks be true, how much remains to be done, which nothing but *individual effort* can accomplish. We would repeat our appeal to *Patriotism* and *Philanthropy*, and *Christian Benevolence*. While we rejoice in all that they have done, and are still doing, we would warn them, that unless their efforts are speedily doubled, and still increase every year to meet the influx of ignorance, and the increase of childhood, all that is yet accomplished must be lost to us as a nation; and an ignorant and depraved people, must ultimately follow the degraded rulers of their own choice, in the funeral procession of our Political, and Social, and Christian Institutions.

Art. III.—American School Agents' Society.

We have rarely been more interested at a meeting of this kind, than at the *First Annual Meeting* of this Society. It was held at the hall of Phillips' Academy, in Andover, on Monday, August 5th. In the absence of the President, Mr S. R. Hall was called to the chair. A brief sketch of the proceedings of the last year was read by the Secretary, Mr Jewett, Professor elect of the Marietta Institute for Teachers, and was accompanied by statements of the agents employed.

It appears, that agreeably to the plan of the Society, a number of agents were employed to visit schools in different parts of the country, to examine their state, and to deliver public lectures on education, in order to excite the attention of parents and teachers to the defects of their schools, and the best means of improving them. It was stated that they were generally listened to with deep interest. In the greater number of cases, sufficient contributions were made to defray their expenses, and earnest invitations were given them to return. It was satisfactorily ascertained, that on this, as every other subject, the address of a lecturer will often rouse to attention and effort, when printed essays and addresses, or even laws, would have no efficacy; and that when the subject is thus presented, and valuable information given, by a competent agent, those to whom he goes are usually disposed to sustain him, and invite him to return.

It was stated by the agents, that while in many towns and districts laudable efforts had been made and much had been done to improve schools, the methods of instruction and the books in use were, to a sad extent, very defective; and embrace few of the improvements of the present century.

After reading the report, the following resolution was offered by W. C. Woodbridge:

Resolved, That in view of the facts presented to this meeting, from the reports of the agents of this Society, and from other sources, it is evident that the state of schools, even in the most favored portions of our country, is far below the standard which is requisite for the institutions of a free people.

In support of the resolution, it was remarked, that Education ought to provide for the body and the heart, as well as the mind. Yet how few teachers are there who feel themselves called upon, and how few are competent to provide for improving the bodies as well as the minds of their pupils! To how great an extent is the cultivation of right feelings almost entirely neglected! Multitudes of our schools, if we may credit the opinion of some of the best parents and friends of education, are nurseries of evil dispositions and habits, instead of good. But if we consider merely the intellect, the methods of instruction are so defective, and so little attention is paid to strengthening the mind itself, that the work is generally but half done. Even the knowledge of language is confined rather to its sounds than its meaning.

The resolution was seconded by Mr Newton, one of the agents of the Society, who stated many facts concerning the state of schools, which fully confirmed the truth of the resolution.

The following resolution was offered by Rev. Mr Lindsley of Boston:

Resolved, That it is an imperious duty, devolving upon the citizens of the United States, as patriots and christians, to provide schools for the multitude of children who are destitute of instruction, especially at the South and West.

He observed that it seemed superfluous to speak in such an audience of the importance of instruction, or the duty of providing it. The duty devolved on this Society was not to *furnish* schools, but to induce others to furnish them; and he did not know how it could be accomplished but in the very way they had adopted. Prejudice had existed in regard to agents; but, he asked, what benevolent object of importance had ever been effected without agents. It was abundantly proved that the voice of the living teacher was far more efficacious than the press ever could be, alone. He hoped the Society would go on, and extend and increase their efforts.

The motion was seconded by the Rev. Mr Shipherd, of Ohio. He observed, that in coming from the midst of a region where schools were rare, and adults unable to read were numerous, he felt deeply the importance of this Society. He stated many facts in detail, which we cannot recollect with sufficient accuracy to repeat them, abundantly showing the need of immediate exertion, and urged the Society to increased efforts.

It was also stated, that from recent calculations, it appears that there are from 1,000,000 to 1,400,000 children south and west of New-York, destitute of instruction, and that even in the State of New-York itself, there were from 50 to 80,000, of whom 13,000 were in the city of New-York.

The following resolution was offered by Mr Barton, of the Teachers' Seminary:

Resolved, That the experience of the last year furnishes abundant evidence that the employment of agents to ascertain the wants of the community, to excite interest on the subject of education, and to diffuse a knowledge of the best methods of instruction, is of the highest importance to the interests of our schools.

Mr Barton confirmed the remarks of Mr Lindsley on this point, and exhibited with great clearness the indispensable necessity of sending agents, into those places, where a book on education would never penetrate. He observed, that there was, in many towns, a total ignorance of what had been done in other places, at no great distance from them, on this subject, and that it could be removed in no other way.

Mr Beman, one of the agents, confirmed these statements; and stated the neglect of many important points in schools, resulting from this ignorance.

Mr J. O. Taylor, who spent sometime in the State of New-York, as an agent of the Society, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Society find abundant evidence that the community have begun to feel the importance of this subject, and are prepared to encourage and sustain measures of this kind; and that in view of the success which has thus far attended their efforts, they have great occasion for gratitude to God, and every encouragement to go forward with increased energy.

He observed that surprise and curiosity were everywhere excited by representations of the wants of our population and the defects of our schools; and after describing some of the evidences of this, he stated, that so important did some of the most intelligent people of New York consider this Society, and so much did they approve its plan, that it was proposed to form a similar association there, to be devoted to their own

State. Should this society be so organized in Boston, as to inspire public confidence, he did not doubt that it might have auxiliaries in other States.

Mr. S. R. Hall, the principal of the Teachers' Seminary, then offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That in order to secure more prompt and extended effort, it is expedient that the seat of this Society's operations be transferred to Boston, and that a committee be appointed to call a meeting on the 23d of August, to present the subject for their consideration; and that the Report now made, be accepted and referred to them, to be enlarged and presented at that meeting.

He observed that it was never intended to fix the Society at Andover, but only to commence its operations there. That the practicability and usefulness of the plan had been abundantly proved; but that it was now important that it should be removed to some point of operation more central, and where a greater number of individuals could engage in its management. We regret that we cannot repeat a number of interesting remarks on the general topic. He observed that some modifications were necessary in the Constitution of the Society, and some changes in its officers, which it was thought best to refer to those gentlemen who should engage in the cause in Boston.

On this resolution, Prof. Emerson, of the Theological Seminary, observed, that he fully concurred in the importance of removing the Society: that it was not at all an indication that it was not prosperous; but on the contrary that it had become too important to be stationed in a place so retired. He believed it capable of producing great and important effects; and hoped its officers would go on with courage.

Mr. Barton then offered a resolution, which, after some alteration, was passed, as follows:

Resolved, That as this Society has never been concerned in the circulation or recommendation of school books, and as its objects are entirely unconnected with any private interests, the agents should be enjoined to abstain from acting as the agents of any publishers or authors of books or apparatus for the use of schools.

He observed that much jealousy existed, and much prejudice had been excited on this subject, and he deemed it important for the Society to disavow and forbid all agency of this kind. Its object was simply benevolent, and it ought to avoid the appearance of evil. It was remarked by others, that the resolution was not intended to restrict the agents in expressing their own individual opinion; but for this the Society could not be responsible. It must, however, forbid their acting as commercial agents of any works. It appeared that many agents to whom books had been sent with this view, had never even shown them to others; and it was stated that no agent of the Society had ever been thus engaged, while in their employ.

These resolutions were passed unanimously. Messrs. Hall, Woodbridge and Lamson, of the Female Seminary, were appointed a committee to call a meeting in Boston, on the 23d of August, and the Society was adjourned to that time.

We earnestly hope the friends of education in this city will unite, in carrying on a work so happily begun.

We add the following account of a meeting held in the city of New-York, and a subsequent one in Brooklyn, as showing some of the results of the operations of this society, and its practical tendency.

A meeting of unusual interest on the subject of Common Schools was held at Chatham Chapel, in the city of New York on the evening of

Tuesday, July 23, and that large numbers attended. An Address was delivered by Mr. J. O. Taylor, an Agent of the American School Society of Massachusetts. This gentleman has spent much time in traveling the country, and collecting facts in relation to the condition and wants of common schools. He gave a very striking picture of the incompetency of teachers: the indifference of parent ; and the general neglect of primary education.

In the progress of his own observation, and the careful examination of such documents as have come within his reach, Mr T. felt authorized to state, that there are in the United States 1,000,000 children of a proper age to attend school, who have never yet attended one. Of these he remarked 250,000 are in Pennsylvania; and, surprising as it may seem, he supposed the number of uninstructed in New-York amounts to 80,000. In Indiana are reckoned 22,000, and in Illinois 20,000 children, who cannot read; and about as many adults. In New-Jersey, according to the best means of information, there are 11,566 who receive no instruction. In Kentucky, in 1833, about one third of the children are in the same deplorable condition.

The Mayor of the city presided at the meeting, and made an address. Addresses were also made by several other gentlemen. The following resolutions were adopted unanimously, and the meeting closed at a late hour.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this meeting the Common Schools of this State are greatly deficient in good teachers, and that as an unavoidable consequence of this defect, the benefits of which the Common School system is susceptible are very imperfectly enjoyed by the youth of this State.

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to prepare a Memorial to the Legislature, praying for an endowment by the State of a central institution for the education of teachers, upon a scale co-extensive with the public wants.

Resolved, That it be also the duty of the said committee to adopt measures to procure the coöperation of the people of the other counties, in forwarding the object proposed in the preceding resolution.

Resolved, That this meeting highly approve of the measures adopted by the American School Agents' Society, and recommend them to the encouragement and support of all those who are friendly to the diffusion of knowledge.

A meeting of a similar kind was also held at Brooklyn on the evening of July 29th, where Mr Taylor repeated his address, and similar resolutions were adopted. Measures were also taken for the speedy organization of a Lyceum in that place, among which was the appointment of a committee to form a plan. The importance of coöperation among the friends of education of all classes, for the improvement and multiplication of common schools, was strongly insisted on; and the happy tendency of lyceums among children, was illustrated by the following novel exhibition, the account of which we copy from the New-York Advertiser.

'A delegation had been sent from the Juvenile Lyceum of Public School No. 3, in New-York city, consisting of two boys, with various specimens of their ingenuity, which excited general surprise. There were several figures of deer, lions, horses, &c, cut in wood with penknives, and surprisingly like nature, considering that they were copied from mere drawings by the eye. The principal object was a wooden steam engine, about 18 inches high, complete, and working with a crank, presenting every part well proportioned, most nicely adjusted, and closely imitating a large one, even to the date, ornaments, &c, the astonishing production of a lad of 14. The Society was formed in May last, and now possess a cabinet consisting of the following articles, collected and made by the

members: — Specimens of mechanic art, (shoes, sleighs, buckets, &c,) 861; shells, 2,215; minerals, 240; insects, snakes, &c, 115; combs, 162; reptiles, 5; pencilled and painted drawings, 250; engravings, foreign, 24 — total, 3,878."

We believe no meeting on this subject has excited greater interest, or done more to rouse the community from that unaccountable apathy which prevails, than this meeting in New-York. We doubt not that similar results may be produced in every State in the Union, if the Society can be enabled to employ judicious agents in sufficient numbers to extend its operations throughout the country.

Art. IV. — Distortion of the Female Form.

This topic is one of such deep and thrilling interest, that we have with difficulty refrained from taking it up long since. An article in the cheap magazine, published by the London Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, was lately republished in the Ladies' Gazette. The subject has also been treated admirably in a recent work, by Mrs Sigourney; and after these examples, and the cordial reception of Dr Mussey's lectures on this subject, by some of the most refined circles, we trust that we shall be allowed to present it to our readers. The remarks made in the article on Physiology, present the subject generally.

The following appeal of Mrs Sigourney, will, we hope, fix the attention of mothers and daughters on a practice which affects so seriously human health and happiness.

'Tight Lacing.'

'It is not the lightest part of a mother's duty to superintend the physical welfare of her offspring. This complicated and wonderful clay temple, rendered so precious as the shrine of an undying spirit, is worthy of strict guardianship. The mother, appointed to watch its construction, to aid the harmony of its architecture, to rejoice in its symmetry, who perceives daily how much the mind is affected by the circumstances of its lodgment, should cherish and prize the *mortal for the sake of the immortal.*

'Does she attach value to the gems of intellect? Let her see that the casket which contains them be not carelessly disarranged or broken! Does she pray for the welfare of the soul? Let her seek the good of its companion, who walks with it to the very gate of the grave, and returns to its embrace on the morning of the resurrection.

'But a single modification of this extensive subject is at present contemplated. Yet, as it affects the health and life of our daughters, it ought not to be disregarded with indifference by their maternal guardians. The injuries arising from compression of the vital parts are too numerous to be here recounted. Multiplied forms of obstructed circulation, nervous

disease, and organic affection, are in their train. A physician, eminently skilful in the melancholy science of insanity, asserts that tight lacing is a prolific source of mental derangement. Another medical gentleman, who has been led by philanthropy to investigate this point, assures the public that *thousands die annually*, from the severe discipline of busk and corset. The frightful internal ravages thus produced, have been too often illustrated by dissection, to admit of a doubt.

'Habits of tight lacing are the more dangerous, because no one will acknowledge them. Those evils that shun the light, and shelter themselves in subterfuges, are ever the most difficult to remedy. A great part of that energy which might tend to their reform is wasted in hunting them from their hiding places. Has any young lady been known to acknowledge that she was destroying herself, that she was even uncomfortable from tight lacing? Yet the suppressed sigh, the labored respiration, the suffused countenance, the constrained movement, confess what the lips deny. Pulmonary and spinal diseases, lunacy, and the grave, reveal the rest.

'But is it possible, that in these days of improved and diffused education, any young female can stake the well being of her mind, and the duration of her existence upon a circumstance of dress? Can she impede the functions of these mysterious agents, which the Almighty has put in motion, and make her shortened life a living death? Can she throw a blinding illusion over those who would save her, and, like the Spartan culprit, conceal the destroyer that feeds upon her heart's blood? *We know that it is so!* And who that has tested the omnipotence of fashion will doubt it? This is not the only sacrifice of health which she imposes. But is a prominent one, and let mothers look to it. Let them not be satisfied with *testimony* when *demonstration* is in their power. Let them possess themselves of the rudiments of anatomy. Let them at least be fully aware of the danger of stricture, in the region of the lungs and heart, especially during their period of development.

'Yet let them not linger till morbid habits have acquired strength. Their ministry is among the elements of character. Let them teach, even over the cradle, "that this body is the temple of the Holy Ghost." Let them early root from the minds of their daughters, that frivolous and mad principle, that the healthful action of their mind, and the perfect use of the organs through which it speaks, are secondary to the vanities of dress. If they have received from the great Creator, the gifts of a "sound mind and a sound body," instruct them that they are to account for them. If they deliberately permit sin to enslave the one, or fashion to maim the other, how shall they answer it to their Judge?

'*And how shall the mother answer it*, who, when the soul was put into her hand as a waxen tablet, suffered folly to deepen its impressions there, and vanity to trace its thousand likenesses, and fashion to puff out her feverish breath on the lines that virtue had written, until what might have been polished for Heaven, was sullied and melted away?

L. H. S.

'*Hartford, Conn. May 11th*, 1833.'

The London Penny Magazine, every article of which is revised by some of the most distinguished and philanthropic men in England, adverts, in a manner at once clear, popular and convincing, to the various kinds of derangement of the physical frame which

compression produces; but our limits will not now permit the insertion of the article. The following figures which accompany it, show the tremendous extent to which the evil effects of this practice go in distorting the very bones, as well as the external form.

FIG. 1 is an outline of the famous statue of the Venus de Medici, and may be considered as the *beau ideal* of a fine female figure. FIG. 2 is the skeleton of a similar figure, with the bones in their natural position.

FIG. 1. FIG. 2.

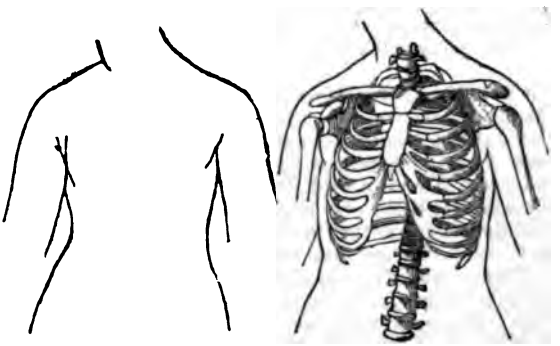
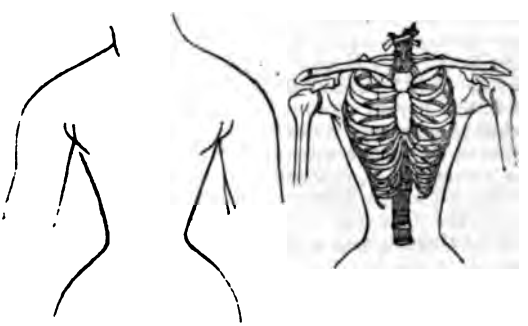


FIG. 3 is an outline of the figure of a modern fashionable after it has been permanently remodelled by stays. FIG. 4 is the skeleton belonging to such a figure as No. 3.

FIG. 3. FIG. 4.



In comparing these figures, it should be borne in mind, that the size of the chest belonging to Figs. 3 and 4 is obviously *less* than that belonging to Figs. 1 and 2. This is mentioned to remove, if possible, any suspicions of exaggeration that might otherwise arise;

for we are assured that the representation of deformity is substantially correct; and that the evils which result can hardly be exaggerated. They present palpable evidence, however, that while this practice is destructive to health, it is not less ruinous to beauty. It is astonishing that the fashion which adorns the celebrated statues of Venus as the model of the female form, should yet encourage a practice, which thus distorts it. Is not this exhibition enough to stifle the pleas of vanity on its behalf, and to leave conscience at liberty to do its office?

Art. V. — Insanity from Excessive Study.

In our first volume we inserted the remarks of physicians on insanity, from miseducation. The public prints furnish us with a melancholy illustration of the same general principle, in the case of Mr Joseph Frothingham, from Salem, Mass., a student of the Oneida Institute. In April last he was suddenly missed, and strong suspicions were entertained of his murder. Nothing was heard of him, however, until a letter was recently received by his parents, dated 'Atlantic Ocean, 12th May, 1833, 500 miles east of Newfoundland Banks.' The following extract from his letter will show to what account his abduction is to be charged.

'While at the Institute, having nothing else to do, and wishing to get ahead, I applied myself very closely to study, (particularly the Latin Grammar,) leaving off only when absolutely necessary. You recollect I arrived during vacation, before the regular course of labor had commenced, and thinking I should have plenty of it in a few days, contented myself with taking very little exercise. The effects of this close application from sunrise till nine in the evening, I soon perceived, and several times was sensible that my thoughts for a moment or two were rather wandering. Yet I did not feel at all anxious or discouraged, reasoning with myself that so sudden a change of pursuit must necessarily cause me at first to feel rather unwell, and that after a few days my mind would recover its wonted tone. After the 5th or 6th of April, the little momentary aberrations became more frequent, and how I spent much of the time intervening between that date and the 8th, I am wholly unable to say. Some things which I did, I recollect distinctly, and others only as we recall the vagaries of a dream. But after the 8th, everything is wrapt in confusion—"shadows, clouds and darkness rest upon it." I have a vague, dim recollection of feeling somewhat as if standing near a mountain, when a volcano bursts from the side. To escape the fiery deluge, I traveled by sea and land; but onward it still seemed to move, and ever to rear itself, a wall of living fire. One only thing I can recollect clearly. Finding myself in a strange street, near a large stone building, I inquired of a soldier the name of the place, and he answered Montreal. For a moment I wondered what could have brought me there, but then came confusion over my mind again, and *not an idea or incident* can I recollect, until yesterday, about 10 A. M., when I found myself in the steerage of a ship bound from Quebec to Liverpool. I immediately communicated every thing to my fellow passengers, (a young man and wife) and from them, learned the following particulars.'

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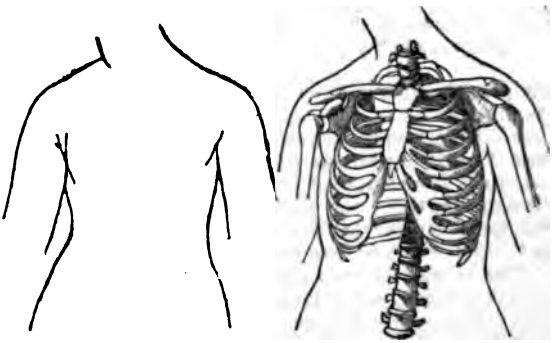
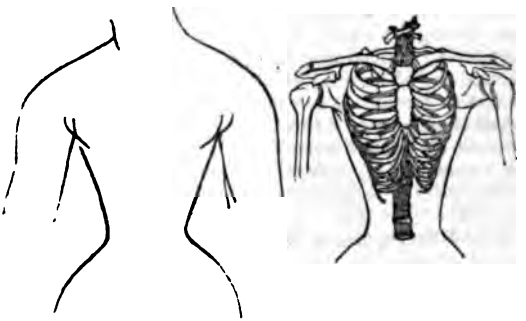


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Art. V. — Insanity from Excessive Study.

In our first volume we inserted the remarks of physicians on insanity, from miseducation. The public prints furnish us with a melancholy illustration of the same general principle, in the case of Mr Joseph Frothingham, from Salem, Mass., a student of the Oneida Institute. In April last he was suddenly missed, and strong suspicions were entertained of his murder. Nothing was heard of him, however, until a letter was recently received by his parents, dated 'Atlantic Ocean, 12th May, 1833, 500 miles east of Newfoundland Banks.' The following extract from his letter will show to what account his abduction is to be charged.

'While at the Institute, having nothing else to do, and wishing to get ahead, I applied myself very closely to study, (particularly the Latin Grammar,) leaving off only when absolutely necessary. You recollect I arrived during vacation, before the regular course of labor had commenced, and thinking I should have plenty of it in a few days, contented myself with taking very little exercise. The effects of this close application from sunrise till nine in the evening, I soon perceived, and several times was sensible that my thoughts for a moment or two were rather wandering. Yet I did not feel at all anxious or discouraged, reasoning with myself that so sudden a change of pursuit must necessarily cause me at first to feel rather unwell, and that after a few days my mind would recover its wonted tone. After the 5th or 6th of April, the little momentary aberrations became more frequent, and how I spent much of the time intervening between that date and the 8th, I am wholly unable to say. Some things which I did, I recollect distinctly, and others only as we recall the vagaries of a dream. But after the 8th, everything is wrapt in confusion—"shadows, clouds and darkness rest upon it." I have a vague, dim recollection of feeling somewhat as if standing near a mountain, when a volcano bursts from the side. To escape the fiery deluge, I traveled by sea and land; but onward it still seemed to move, and ever to rear itself, a wall of living fire. One only thing I can recollect clearly. Finding myself in a strange street, near a large stone building, I inquired of a soldier the name of the place, and he answered Montreal. For a moment I wondered what could have brought me there, but then came confusion over my mind again, and *not an idea or incident* can I recollect, until yesterday, about 10 A.M., when I found myself in the steerage of a ship bound from Quebec to Liverpool. I immediately communicated every thing to my fellow passengers, (a young man and wife) and from them, learned the following particulars.'

It appears that he met them accidentally, and embarked with them, after making most of the necessary preparations, and after passing through various difficulties on his way down the river, reached the ship. In consequence of the small sum of money that Mr. F. had, he was consigned to the steerage, but kindly supplied with necessaries by the captain. It was not until after a week's confinement with sea-sickness, (which perhaps was the very remedy which a kind Providence saw necessary,) that he recovered his recollection, and then, he observes, his 'mind, in an instant, was as clear and as rational as ever.' The conclusion of his own letter will be more interesting than any abridgment.

'The captain remarked that he had sometimes suspected me to be a little deranged, and my fellow passengers thought my appearance very odd at Quebec: but as I was frequently engaged while on board in reading their books, they concluded it was owing to "absence of mind, and a naturally eccentric character."—They could hardly believe me, when I first made known to them my utter ignorance of every transaction since the time I met with them on the St Lawrence. They told me I had been uniformly courteous and cheerful, and that when we walked from the shore to a house during the storm, I carried her in my arms about half the way, she being too cold and wearied to walk. They were well wrapped up in blankets, but I had nothing but my cloak, and got two of my fingers frozen. You can better conceive, than I can express, how strangely I felt when reason first told me that I was in the cabin of a vessel, and when I knew from the pitching and tossing that that vessel was on the ocean. I am in hopes of meeting with some vessel bound homeward, and if I cannot return in her, to send this letter. If we speak no vessel in which I can return, I shall probably take passage immediately after arriving in Liverpool. Till then, I leave all other incidents connected with this almost incredible loss of reason. I do not doubt that study was the cause, and thus are all my hopes of going through college blasted — for I should not dare to make a second attempt. But I think nothing of that. *Iam lost in wonder* that such a journey could have been performed in safety in such a singular absence of mind—and to think too that I even went through all, without even losing my money, is most strange

'My preservation appears indeed miraculous — but I know not what to say. How thankful should I be to the great Being who has guided and directed my wanderings—'thankful!' 'tis too tame a word — words cannot express my feelings, and I leave all, for the contemplation almost overwhelms me.'

Mr F. has since returned, and confirms the whole account. — Would that his well-meant, but mistaken zeal in study, might be the means of saving many now in danger from a result not less fatal to future plans, and of preserving others from that partial mania — that predominance of the body over the mind — which we believe gives rise to not a few of the follies, and errors, and faults of sedentary men.

We will only add, as an example of a result more deadly, from a similar imprudence, that one of the most diligent and promising students of an institution, returned to his room after a long tour on foot, in perfect health, and as he imagined, with a stock laid up, on which he might draw. He sat down closely to study. The blood thus accumulated, which rushed to Mr Frothingham's *brain*, in this case burst forth in a profuse discharge from the lungs; and after years spent in struggling, by the aid of a fine constitution, against the diseases and the effects of study, he fell, in the midst of the brightest prospects of usefulness, a victim to his hasty efforts to be a scholar. Would not a thorough knowledge of Physiology, preserve both sexes from incalculable evil?

Art. VI. — Practical Lessons.

We often find that general remarks are misunderstood, and general principles imperfectly or falsely applied, for want of direct, practical illustration. It is on this ground, and to meet a demand, often made, that we have sometimes inserted practical lessons. Although they may be unnecessary and uninteresting to many of our readers, we believe they are useful to others; and will at least prevent our views from being misconceived. At this day, when 'improvement in education,' is synonymous with multiplied branches of instruction, we consider it of high importance not to mistake a knowledge of maps for geography, or the names of surfaces and solids for geometry; and we have endeavored, in the following lesson, to bring this point, among others, into view, and to persuade teachers to make an experiment which will show them that observation, guided by directions, is often a more effectual means of instruction, than the mere gazing at specimens, which represent only an individual of a family.

Dialogue on Geology.

'What does the word Ge-ol-o-gy mean, father? It sounds a little like *Geography*.'

'Why, my son, it *is* a little like it. *Ge* means *earth*, in *Greek*; and *logy* means *knowledge* or science. *Geography* is the science which describes the earth, generally, and its inhabitants. *Geology* is the science which teaches us about the rocks, and soil, and everything which helps to form the solid parts of the earth.'

'I wish you would teach me Geology father! William Jones learned it, two weeks ago.'

'Indeed! Why, I have studied it a great deal, and have not learned it well yet.'

'Why somebody sent to our school five little pieces of stone that they called *specimens*, with curious names marked on them in print; and the master told William about them, and he looked at them, and learned all about Geology directly. I wish you would get some *specimens*, father, and teach me, too.'

'I shall be very glad to teach you, my son, but I cannot promise to teach you so soon. *Specimen* means a piece or a part of something, to show what it is. So you go, sometimes, to get a *sample* or *pattern*, (which is the same thing as a *specimen*) of sugar, or tea, or cloth, from the store, so that I may see whether it is good, and whether I will buy it. But what do you think of the man who brought a brick, to show as a sample or specimen of the house he wanted to sell?'

'Why, father, do you believe anybody was ever so foolish?'

'It is not a whit more foolish, my son, than to suppose you understand Geology, which describes the great rocks and mountains of the earth, because you have five small pieces of stone.'

'But, father, can't I learn Geology now?'

'You can learn to understand *a few minerals*, my son. They sometimes call them the *Alphabet of Geology*. But then, after you have learned the alphabet, you have to go and read books, before you can understand language; and so after you have learned these minerals, you must go and study *rocks*, and *mountains*, and *soils*, a great while, before you can understand Geology.'

'Well, father, teach me the alphabet, then.'

'I have no specimens, here; but I will try to teach you how to find them yourself, and that will be better.

'The first letter of the alphabet in Geology, is *quartz*; a singular name enough, but a very common mineral.'

'A mineral, father! I thought minerals only came from mines.'

'No, my son; men dig mines in order to get minerals; but everything which belongs to the solid part of the earth, even if it is but a grain of sand or dirt, is mineral.'

'But how does quartz look? What color is it?'

'Why, that is almost like asking, of what color cloth or hair is. It has almost every color. It is generally white, but it is very often red, brown, and yellow, and black, and sometimes blue, green, smoke-color, or violet. I have known little boys sadly puzzled, when they began to study minerals, because their *specimen* of quartz was white, and go out to look for it, and find a great many red, and brown, and other colored stones, and load their pockets with them, never dreaming that one stone would have so many colors; and when they came home, they found they were all *quartz*! I well remember how I was disappointed.'

'How can I tell then, father?'

'Why, the best mark of quartz is its hardness. It is harder than any other mineral you are likely to find. You cannot scratch it with anything else; and if you try to scratch it with iron or steel, it will leave a mark upon it like metal. It will even scratch glass.

'But there is another way of trying it. If you have a piece large enough, strike it against a piece of steel, and it will strike fire.'

'But, father, we strike fire with flint.'

'Yes, my son; but you will not often find flint here. Most of our flints come from France and England. They are found, generally, in beds of chalk, and we have few, if any, beds of *real* chalk in America. It is, however, very much like flint, and is sometimes called white flint.

'There is another way in which you may know it. Rub two pieces together in the dark, and they will make a bright light, and you will perceive a curious smell. Quartz is generally milky or thick, so that you cannot see through it.

'You remember that you are to know quartz chiefly by its *hardness*. The pieces which you will find, generally, have no particular shape; and break, like any other stone. Sometimes it is in regular shaped pieces, which look as if they had been cut and polished. These are called *crystals*, and generally have six sides. The crystals are sometimes clear and beautiful, and sometimes you will find pieces of quartz which have belonged to crystals. Then it is used to make seals and ornaments, and is called rock crystal.'

'O yes: I have seen beautiful rock crystals, at the watch-makers, as clear as glass, so that I could see through it.'

'You must remember that true crystal will scratch glass. And now, my son, I have described to you the first letter in the Alphabet of Geology. You may go and find some *specimens* of quartz, and let me see whether you understand this, before I teach you more.'

INTELLIGENCE.*

Seminaries for Teachers.

We are gratified to see increasing interest on the subject of Seminaries for Teachers, and we hope the time is not far distant, when a special education will be deemed as necessary for this profession, as for lawyers, or physicians, or divines.

We have formerly noticed the Institute at Marietta, Ohio, which has this for one of its objects, and are happy to learn that there will soon be an important accession to its means of instruction. We have lately received a notice of another institution with the same general object in view, in a select colony about to be established under the name of Oberlin, in Lorain county, Ohio. It is intended, ultimately, to embrace all grades of instruction, from the infant school to the theological seminary, with the great object of preparing teachers and pastors for the great basin of the Mississippi. We regret that we cannot now insert the article entire. Its plan is founded upon sound principles of education. It is also to embrace the plan of manual labor, and from the favorable circumstances of its situation and privileges, its founders feel themselves authorized to state, that a donation of $150, expended in establishing the literary and manual labor departments, will secure the education of one student annually for active usefulness, without any more labor than his own welfare demands.

We feel bound, however, to remind those who are engaged in this great object, that nothing so much destroys the public confidence in improvements, as the imperfect execution of a valuable plan, such has been the result of our infant schools. And we venture to predict, that no seminary for teachers will attain the great object in view, in which every other plan is not made subservient to this. In the small States of Germany and Switzerland, where they are established, it is deemed necessary to devote one or more persons as *exclusively* to this object, as if they were professors in a collegiate institution, and the school for practice, which is connected with each, is under the direction of an additional teacher, who has no other employment. A regular series of studies and classes is appointed, and no young man can receive a certificate of his qualifications, until he has proved them in the experimental school. We hope the Teachers' Seminary, at Andover, which is so happily begun, will soon be placed on such a basis, that it will serve as a model for others ; and that the example of a thorough course of preparation for important duties, in a neighboring institution, will not be neglected, nor its imitation rendered impracticable, by inadequate means of support.

Silliman's Journal of Science.

We regret to see that this valuable periodical is obliged again to appeal to its friends for aid. Works like this, which scatter among us knowledge that is no where to be found, or which otherwise find no place of publication, except among the expensive periodicals of Europe, should be sustained on the same principle as the light houses on our coast. Thousands who never read, or even see them, will receive increased supplies of comfort or safety, from the aid thus given to others. We are as dependent upon the men to whom this journal is necessary for our advancement in science, and arts, and property, as we are on the sailors for our protection and supplies. We trust the appeal will not be in vain.

* We are compelled by the unexpected length of our principal articles to omit several notices and articles of intelligence designed for this number.

Burr Seminary.

This Institution, situated in Manchester, Bennington County, Vermont, was opened on the 15th of May last, and though accommodations were provided for only one hundred students, yet early in July the number had already risen to one hundred and ten. Rev. Lyman Aikin is Principal, and John Aikin Esq, Associate Principal.

The course of instruction is intended to be such as will prepare young men thoroughly for College; but to those who do not expect to enjoy this privilege, a more extended course will be given. The Bible is made a distinct object of study; and on the Sabbath and on other suitable occasions, familiar instruction will be given on morals and religion.

The government of the Institution is to be parental in its character,—mild, yet firm and decisive: and a faithful supervision is to be exercised by the Principal over the habits and morals of the students. Even the steward must be a gentleman of approved and christian character.

The prices of tuition are, $3 a quarter for ordinary English branches, $4 for the higher branches and the Ancient Classics. Plain and wholesome board is furnished in commons at the cost of labor and materials; and to those who wish to dispense with some of the more costly articles of living, a proportional reduction is made. To 38 pupils, the funds furnish instruction gratuitously.

The Institution owns a lot of 30 acres of land, a considerable part of which will be appropriated to tillage and gardening. Provision has also been made for the erection of a work-shop, to be furnished with valuable machinery, propelled by water power, and to afford facilities for the prosecution of almost every kind of mechanical employment.

Correspondence of the American Lyceum.

Extract of a Letter read to the American Lyceum at the Third Annual Meeting, by their Corresponding Secretary, Mr Dwight —from the Vice President of Colombia.

Paris, Aug. 29, 1832.

I have read with great interest the proceedings of the American Lyceum. I have desired, and still wish I could accept your invitation to write my poor ideas on such interesting subjects as you propose; but to produce anything proper to be submitted to the intelligent people of the United States, it is necessary that the topic be maturely digested, and the task performed with care and labor. My time will not allow me to devote myself at present to such an undertaking. Be so kind therefore as to excuse me, until I shall be in such a situation that I may be able to command the necessary leisure.

I paid a visit to the editor of one of the most enlightened papers of this capital, and, as I anticipated, he received me very kindly, although I presented no other claims than those of philanthropic sentiments. Our interview was devoted to the progress of morality and civilization in the New World, and I opened my whole heart. I propose to visit other real philanthropists for the same purpose.

The son of Count Las Casas interests me very much with the project of a general system of Education in France, which he is laboriously engaged in preparing in order to introduce the subject to the Chambers. I am entering fully into his projects, and will hereafter communicate them to you. His objects are to combine sound morals with instruction. The Editor of the Revue Encyclopœdique, has offered to publish a notice of the object and proceedings of the American Lyceum.

At an entertainment which I attended a short time since, at which most of the guests were citizens of the U. States, and of S. America, the toasts were full of enthusiasm, and marked with feelings of attachment to our whole American Continent, and sympathy between the brethren of the North and South. We expressed our respect for the virtues of the North Americans, and I announced with exultation, the hopes I entertain of their future progress, and the sentiments and opinions I hold with respect to their good morals, their public education of the poor classes, and the exalted virtues of the matrons of the U. States. The North Americans responded with the warmest sympathy, in favor of their southern brethren, and we spent the time till midnight, in conversing on subjects of high importance — the promotion of good morals, civilization and intimate friendship among *all Americans.*

I learn with pleasure of the increase of Lyceums in the U. States, and that they are formed in every part of the country. I hope the time may come when such associations will be known in China and Japan, with the truths of Christianity. I firmly believe that this is our destiny, in the designs of Providence. Consider the great effects produced in France, and more recently in all Europe, by the example of the U. States. The societies for the promotion of peace begin to excite important discussions against the abuse of force, and will produce more effect than is generally anticipated.

Those who entertain just sentiments ought to say in the words of Fenelon: — 'I love my family better than myself; I love my country better than my family; but I love the human race better than my country.'

JOAQUIN MOSQUERA.

NOTICE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

REPEATED attempts have been made to establish a periodical on Education, but with little success. This work is the only one of a general character, which now exists in the United States, so far as we are informed. Since its origin, as the 'Journal of Education,' it has never been profitable to the editor, nor to its early publishers, except as a medium of advertising. Its first editor was compelled to abandon it; and for some time after, no one was found willing to assume its responsibilities permanently. The present editor returned, after several years spent in examining the state of education in Europe, charged by the friends of this cause abroad, to make known the improvements which they had found so valuable. He believed it essential to the improvements of education among us, to have some periodical devoted to the investigation of our own wants, and the publication of our own plans and experiments, which should serve as the medium of communication among the friends of the cause, at home and abroad.

In order to secure a publication of this kind, so far as possible, from all influence, or suspicion of influence, he purchased, the property of the 'Journal,' and subsequently of the 'Education Reporter,' and has conducted it for three years, at a very considerable expense. His great object was to place the work on such a basis, that it might assume *a permanent and national character*, and he did not take the charge of it himself, until he had endeavored in vain to enlist others, in his view, more competent, by an offer of all its proceeds, and regular contributions. In

order to make it known more extensively, to interest the friends of education, and to circulate the information he had received, about 500 vols. and 5,000 extra numbers have been sent out, without any payment, to public institutions, missionary schools, individuals engaged in education, and the editors of newspapers.

The ardent interest expressed in the subject, throughout our country, the general approbation of the work itself, and the gradual increase of subscriptions, seemed to justify him in proceeding, even without immediate returns; and in publishing a larger number of copies than were immediately demanded. He believed it safe to assume, that in a country, containing 10,000,000 of freemen 'better educated than those of any European community,' and where the subject of education excites so much attention, at least 1,500 persons would be found, anxious to obtain all the light of modern improvement on this important subject, and ready to sustain a publication devoted to it. Yet the event has proved, that *less than nine hundred* can be found to support a work, which for three years, has received warm expressions of approbation from parents, and teachers, and the public press. Notwithstanding all the expenses incurred, he has never received a dollar from the publication, either as editor or proprietor. On the contrary, the accounts for the two first years show a large amount, in addition to all the receipts, *still due*, for printing and paper, for which he is responsible.

During these years, a large stock of materials, already prepared, and the aid of able contributors, enabled him to conduct the work without giving up other employments. The friends of education, he finds, are generally too much engaged in active effort to continue this aid; and the increased labors of editing, and especially the examination of books, now require so much of his time, as to allow little efficient effort of any other kind. The future proceeds, with the present number of subscribers, will afford no return for his labors, or those of contributors; much less any means of paying past arrearages. Could the subscription be increased, it would indeed provide for the future, and for this only. Could the volumes now on hand, be disposed of by those inclined to favor the object, without deduction for the commissions of agents, the sum now due could be paid. If this cannot be effected, he can see no other alternative, but to abandon the work at the close of the present year, and resort to other means to provide for expenditures, which many believe, have contributed to benefit the public, by the diffusion of valuable information.

He has come to this conclusion with great reluctance, and it will give him pain to bid farewell to a large number of his subscribers, whose personal interest in the work has been fully expressed. He has not made known these circumstances earlier, because he had hoped to sustain its losses himself; but he feels more and more satisfied, that its permanency cannot be insured, unless the friends of education will unite in supporting it, by subscriptions, and by contributing to its pages. Could each subscriber consider himself an agent for life, we believe this could be accomplished. If *men of education* will not sustain it, the *ignorant* certainly will not do it. It has *no party character* or *popular attractions* to recommend it. Nor can it furnish the mass of matter, merely copied by the printer from foreign works, or present the attractive engravings, which give such wide circulation to some of our periodicals. It depends for its existence, on that number, comparatively small, who know how to prize solid and useful information. If they refuse their aid, it must expire.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

OCTOBER, 1833.

Art. I. — Education in New Hampshire.

We have been favored with a Discourse delivered before the New-Hampshire Historical Society, at their Annual Meeting, in Concord, June 12th, 1833; by Nathaniel Bouton, and published by Marsh, Capen and Lyon, at the request of the Society. This discourse is one of no ordinary merit; and to us, its interest is greatly enhanced by the consideration that it is almost the only source from which we have ever been able to derive any important authentic information respecting the general condition of education in that interesting member of our confederacy. It was referred to by Mr Bouton, when called upon for a copy of his statements to the American Lyceum, and represented as a supplement to the reports of that body.

The author first traces the origin of the system of education, now prevalent in New England to the personal character and civil and religious polity of the first settlers of New England. Next to the enjoyment and propagation of their religion, their object in emigrating to these shores was, as he tells us, *to educate their children.* His remarks are these.

'One reason which determined the Puritan pilgrims upon a removal from Leyden (in their own language) was; *that the place being of great licentiousness and liberty to children, they could not educate them, nor could they give them due correction without reproof or reproach from their neighbors.* Among the general considerations for the plantation of New England, Cotton Mather mentions; "Fifthly; — the schools of learning and religion are so corrupted as (besides the unsupportable charge of education) most children, even the best and the wittiest, and of the fairest hopes, are perverted, corrupted, and utterly overthrown by the multitude of evil examples and licentious behaviours in these Seminaries."'

From 1623, when New Hampshire began to be settled, till 1641,

when it was united for a time with Massachusetts, the subject of Education received no attention in the Colony. But as intercourse was kept up with Massachusetts, it may be well to mention the regulations which were adopted there during this period.

'One of the earliest legislative acts of the Massachusetts colony, was the following: "Forasmuch as the good education of children, is of singular behoofe and benefit to any Commonwealth; and whereas many parents and masters are too indulgent and negligent of their duty in that kind:

'It is therefore ordered by this Courte and authority thereof, that the selectmen of every towne, in the several precincts and quarters where they dwell, shall have a vigilent eye over theire brethren and neighbours; to see, first, that none of them shall suffer so much barbarisme in any of their familyes, as not to endeavor to teach by themselves or others, theire children and apprentices, so much learning as may inable them perfectly to read the English tongue, and knowledge of the capitall lawes."'

As early as 1635, free schools were commenced in Boston. The union of the Massachusetts and New Hampshire colonies continued till 1680, and during this time the example of Boston was rapidly followed by smaller towns in both colonies. 'In the subject of schools, both rulers and ministers felt a deep interest, and schoolmasters were a commodity in great demand, and eagerly sought.' As early as 1644, one town devoted a portion of its lands to the support of schools; but before the lands could be productive, they raised in various ways, the sum of 20 pounds to hire a schoolmaster.'

The following are extracts from an Act which was passed by the General Court, as early as the year 1647, for the promotion of common education.

'*It is therefore ordered by this Courte and authority thereof*, That every towneshipp within this jurisdiction, after that the Lord hath increased them to the number of fifty howsholders, shall then forthwith appointe one within theire towne, to teach all such children as shall resorte to him, to write and read; whose wages shall be paid either by the parents or masters of such children, or by the inhabitants in generall, by way of supplye, as the major parte of those who order the prudentials of the towne shall appointe.'

'*And it is further ordered*, That where any towne shall increase to the number of one hundred families or howsholders, they shall sett up a grammar schoole, the masters thereof, being able to instruct youths so far as they may bee fitted for the university.'

In 1669, the interest felt on the subject of Education had greatly increased in New Hampshire. An effort being made to collect money by subscription or contribution, to aid in erecting a new edifice for Harvard College, Portsmouth, which was now become the richest town in the colony, subscribed sixty pounds annually for seven years; Dover gave thirtytwo pounds; and Exeter, ten.

After New Hampshire became a separate colony in 1680, they were deeply involved for 18 years, in the sanguinary conflict with the French and Indians. It is interesting to observe that the subject of education was still not forgotten; for a law was passed in 1693, making provision for the building and repairing of meeting houses, ministers' houses, school houses, and allowing a salary to a schoolmaster in each town within the province. The selectmen of each town, (except Dover,) were required to raise money by 'equal rate

and assessment' upon the inhabitants, and every town to provide a schoolmaster, on penalty of ten pounds.

The *second* law passed in the New Hampshire colony on this subject was in 1714. This was the same as the first, except that it included Dover. The *third*, in 1719, ordained that every town having 50 householders or upwards, should be 'constantly provided of a schoolmaster to teach children and youth to *read and write*; and that in every town of 100 householders a grammar school' should be kept by 'some discreet person of good conversation, well instructed in the tongues.' The penalty of towns for neglecting to support a schoolmaster for teaching, reading and writing, was 20 pounds. A *fourth* law in 1721 ordered that 'if any town or parish is destitute of a Grammar school for the space of one month, the *selectmen* shall forfeit and pay *out of their own estates*, the sum of 20 pounds, to be applied towards the defraying the charges of the Province.'

But notwithstanding the spirit and wisdom of these laws, it does not appear that they were always carried into execution. Before the adoption of the State Constitution in 1783, 170 towns had been incorporated, and as many of them did not contain fifty families, and the inhabitants were exceedingly scattered, schools were much neglected. 'Many children were taught all that they ever knew of reading and writing at home.' A gentleman now living in Concord, 87 years of age, says that 'his parents taught him to read when they lived in a fort, and that he learned to write on *birch bark*.' Arithmetic was studied without a book, the master setting the sums, and giving the rules. Of this we have the testimony of several aged people, one of whom was living in 1823, at the age of 112 years. When visited in his old age, the following conversation took place. 'When you were young, did you attend school constantly? No; I never went to school but one winter; then I had to go two or three miles, and was almost tired to death when I got home. What books were then used in the school? The Testament and Psalter. Had you no spelling-books? No.' A venerable matron now 100 years old gives similar testimony.

'The Bible,' says Mr Bouton, 'was the reading book for the first or more advanced class. The scholars were spelled from lessons which they read. They had not any printed arithmetic. The first spelling-book ever generally used in New Hampshire was that of the famous schoolmaster, Thomas Dilworth.'

Mr Bouton supposes that Dilworth's spelling-book was not only greatly in advance of all others that preceded, but so perfect that very little real improvement has been made upon it since, even by Webster and Marshall, except that the latter writers are modern and American. But on this topic we have no room to remark.

'Two things,' continues Mr Bouton, 'during the period under review, deserve special notice. *First*, the grant of lands in most of the incorporated towns for the support of schools. *Second*, the interest which was taken in the establishment of a College. The convention of congregational ministers of New Hampshire at Somersworth, Sept. 26, 1758; "taking into consideration the great advantages which may arise to church and state from the erecting an Academy or College in this province, unanimously *voted*" to petition his Excellency, Benning Went-

worth, for a charter. The petition was presented: in which they say; "We beg leave to present a request to your Excellency in behalf of literature, which proceeds, not from any private or party views in us, but our desire to serve the Government and Religion, by laying a foundation for the best instruction of youth." The petition, however, was not granted.'

The grant of land in each township, for the support of common schools, appears to have been 250 acres. In 1769 renewed attempts were made to establish a College, which were at length successful. Dartmouth college was founded at Hanover, and Governor John Wentworth gave lands to endow it, to the amount of 44,000 acres. Subscriptions to aid in the erection of buildings, amounting to 340 pounds sterling, were also raised.

At the adoption of the Constitution in 1783, a new impulse was given to education in New Hampshire. We quote the language of Mr Bouton.

'The third period of our history — from 1783 to the present time, was ushered in by a sentiment worthy of a free and sovereign State. It is the voice of the PEOPLE THEMSELVES on the subject of education, expressed in the form of government of their own adoption. "Knowledge and learning, generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government, and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country, being highly conducive to promote this end; it shall be the duty of the legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of this government, to cherish the interests of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries and public schools, to encourage private and public institutions, rewards and immunities for the promotion of —— sciences and natural history.'

'In accordance with this WILL OF THE PEOPLE, the very same year (7th Nov. 1783,) the General Court passed an act for the encouragement of literature and genius, and for securing to authors the exclusive right and benefit of publishing their literary productions for twenty years Henceforward too, their acts in favor of schools were liberal and progressive in their requirements.'

The first act under the Constitution, passed in 1787, while it repealed all former acts respecting schools, empowered the selectmen of each town to raise so much money at a certain rate of assessment as should be equal to 5,000 pounds for the whole State; the money thus raised to be expended for the purpose of keeping up reading and writing schools, and English grammar schools. Arithmetic was, however, added to the course of study in the former, and in all shire or half-shire towns, Latin and Greek to the latter. This law also required each teacher to produce a certificate from some able and respectable schoolmaster, and some learned minister, preceptor of an Academy, or president of a College.

The second law, 1791, increased the assessment in such proportion as to raise 7,500 pounds in the whole State, instead of 5,000.

The third law, 1805, 'employed towns to divide into school districts; to raise money by tax for erecting and repairing school houses,' &c.

The fourth law, 1807, raised the assessment so much as to impose a tax much larger than that for which provision had been made in 1791; or so high as to raise in the whole State $70,000.

This money was to be expended in schools for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. The law requiring Greek and Latin to be

taught in the grammar schools of shire and half-shire towns was repealed.

'The fifth law, 1808, required the money raised by tax, to be expended in teaching *the various sounds and powers of the letters in the English language*, reading, writing, *English Grammar*, arithmetic, *Geography*, and such other branches as it may be necessary to teach in an English school. The law also allowed school mistresses to dispense with arithmetic and geography, and to teach such other branches of female education, as are deemed necessary in schools under their tuition. Moreover in addition to usual certificates, it required of teachers a certificate of good moral character, from the selectmen or minister of the place where they resided; made it the duty of towns at their annual meeting, to appoint three or more persons who should visit and inspect schools, at such times as should be most expedient, and in a manner "conducive to the progress of literature, morality and religion."

The sixth law, 1818, raised the school tax to $90,000 for the whole State.

'The seventh law, 1827, is far in advance of all that preceded it. * * * In addition to the provisions of all former laws, it requires the appointment annually of a superintending school committee, of not less than three, nor more than five, to examine teachers, to visit and inspect all schools in their respective towns, twice a year; to use their influence and best endeavors that the youth in the several districts attend school; to direct and determine class books, provided that they favor not any religious sect; and to present a written report to the town, each year, stating the time each school has been kept, the whole number of scholars, the progress made in the various branches, the number of children between four and fourteen that have not attended, and between fourteen and twenty-one that cannot read and write. The law also provides that scholars shall be well supplied with books, at the expense of parents, masters, or guardians; it raises the qualifications of teachers higher than formerly, and enjoins it on "presidents, professors, and tutors of colleges, preceptors and teachers of academies, and all other instructors of youth, to take diligent care, and use their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and youth committed to their care and instruction, the principles of piety and justice, and a sacred regard to truth, love of their country, humanity and benevolence, sobriety, industry and frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and all other virtues which are the ornaments of human society."'

This noble act, passed by an overwhelming majority, seemed to promise much for the cause of education in New Hampshire; but in January of the present year, one of its most essential provisions, — that alone by which the statute could produce any considerable effect, was repealed by an enactment which authorized towns 'to dispense with the services of their superintending school committee so far as relates to the inspection or examination of schools.' The reason assigned was that some towns were unwilling to compensate the superintending committee for their services! Even in this repealing act, however, there is one improvement upon the law of 1827, viz. 'that when any poor child or children who may attend school, shall not have the necessary books to enable them to prosecute their studies to advantage, the selectmen shall provide them, at the expense of their respective towns.'

'Thus the laws,' says Mr B. 'now in force afford the means and proffer the benefits of education to every child and youth in the State. Whoever does not avail himself of them, it is his own fault or that of the parent. The 90,000 dollars raised by law, for schools, gives an average of 455 dollars to each town, or about one

dollar to each person in the State, of suitable age to attend school; which is a higher sum than that raised by the famous school fund of Connecticut; the dividend of that amounting last year to but 76,933 dollars. But besides the 90,000 dollars, a large portion of the towns in the State, own school lands, or funds formed from the sale of them, the interest of which is devoted to education. Moreover, the LITERARY FUND, collected by a tax on the several banks in the State, and originally designed for the "endowment or support of a college for instruction in the higher branches of science and literature," was, by a law in 1829, distributed among the several towns according to their apportionment of the public taxes—"to be applied to the support and maintenance of common free schools, or to other purposes of education." The whole amount of the fund actually distributed since the passage of the law, is 95,582 dollars; and the amount annually accruing from the tax on banks to be hereafter distributed, is about 10,000 dollars.

'The division of towns into school districts, renders it practicable and easy for all children in the State, to attend school either summer or winter. In 1823, the number of school districts was 1698, of school houses, 1560. Of the former at present there is known to be at least 1732, and of the latter 1601. Judging from returns received from a number of towns in Merrimack county, we conclude that 1 in 4.6 of the whole population annually attend our free schools. Including those who attend select, private schools, and also academies, we are of opinion, that 1 in 3.5 of the entire population of the States, are, during some portion of each year, in school.

'Besides the indispensable branches of education, reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, grammar and geography, advanced scholars in many of our schools, acquire considerable knowledge of rhetoric, natural philosophy, history, chemistry, book-keeping, surveying and astronomy, and thus become qualified, in their turns, to be teachers of others.'

The address also observes that most of the elementary books used in that State, are the productions of resident authors, some of whose works have been much celebrated. Among these are mentioned Pike, Bingham, Adams, Blake, Kelly, Hildreth, Putman, Hale, Farmer, Leavitt, and Vose.

The grammar schools of New Hampshire, for which such early provision was made, were too generally neglected. This circumstance led to the founding of *Academies*. The number of these now existing in the State is 38, of which all but seven have been incorporated since 1800. About 30 of them are represented as flourishing. Two of them have each a fund of $40,000 or $50,000; generally, however, they are not endowed, but derive their support from the scholars, and from individual subscriptions. The average number of students in these academies is estimated at about 50 in each, or 1500 in all. Exeter academy, which is the oldest and best endowed in the State, has instructed, during 40 years, 1500 pupils.

There are laudable instances of ministers and others who have been very efficient promoters of education in this State. One in particular is named, who, 'personally instructed 155 pupils in his own house.' Of this number 105 entered college; 40 to 50 entered the ministry; 20 the profession of law; and 6 or 7 that of medicine.

Of Dartmouth College, the founding of which has already been mentioned, and its general usefulness, especially as a means of promoting common education in the state, Mr B. observes as follows:

'As citizens of New Hampshire we owe much to the influence of this college in elevating the character of our primary schools and academies, and in promoting education through our country. From its first establishment, about three-fourths

of all the students, have taught schools during some portion of each year. In five years past, the average number of students has been 155, of whom 105 have been teachers in the winter, ordinarily for a term of three months. In the last two years, the number of students has been 170, of whom three-fourths were teachers. More graduates from this college are now teaching in New England, in the southern and western States, particularly in the valley of Mississippi, than from any other college that is known. The whole number who have been educated at this college is 1701.'

The number of students belonging to New Hampshire, connected with different colleges, in 1831 was 170; equal to one in 1500 of the whole population. Of theological students, this state furnishes a larger proportion than any other State, except Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Vermont; and the number of graduates from Dartmouth now studying theology, is greater than that from any other college, except Yale and Amherst. Thus she sustains a high rank in regard to public education, though it is evident much yet remains to be done. It is especially to be regretted, that out of 29,000 youth in this state, between the ages of 18 and 20, 14,000 of whom are males, only 1500 are provided with any public means of instruction, beyond the ordinary branches of a common school.* Mr B. in his closing appeal justly remarks:

'Were the law of 1827 restored, with the addition of the 5th section of the act of January 4, 1833; were a penalty also laid on towns or selectmen, for neglect of appointing and sustaining a superintending committee; were grand jurors sworn as in former times, to present all breaches of this law; and were academies and higher seminaries founded to raise up well qualified teachers, then New Hampshire would be second to no State in the good education of her children.'

The Appendix to this address abounds with interesting facts, from which we select the following in regard to the number of professional men which the State has furnished.

'In 1830 the number of Congregational or Presbyterian *ministers* was 130, or one to every 2,073 inhabitants.' The five oldest were severally of the following ages, viz. 82, 84, 87, 89, and 95.

'In the same year, the number of *lawyers* was 232, or one to every 1,100 inhabitants. The number in practice may be estimated at about 207. The whole number who have ever been settled in the state is 472. Of these 182 were educated at Dartmouth college, and 104 at Harvard University, and a few in other colleges: 148 did not graduate, although a portion of the latter class were members of college before commencing their legal studies.

'The physicians outnumber either of the other professions; but to give their exact number at different periods, will be impossible.'

Extended as these extracts are, we have found them so interesting and deem them so valuable a model for similar statements, that we trust our readers will not regret the space they occupy. We are not prepared to act on this great subject as we ought, until we have accounts even more remote from every state in our republic. Will not the friends of education undertake it, as Mr Peers has done in Kentucky, and show to our legislators the imperative need of public effort?

* See Annals for September, pp. 406—410.

Art. II. — Essay on the Chippewa Language.

Read before the American Lyceum, at the third Annual Meeting, in the City of New York, May 3d, 1833.

By Edwin James, M. D.

The aborigines of our country have been declared on high authority to be in a state of pupilage to our government; and this principle has been adopted in the measures pursued in reference to them. Without discussing a question which does not belong to our work, we cannot pass by the fact, that this claim involves responsibilities, corresponding to the authority claimed. No duty of the guardian, no claim of the pupil, is more obvious than that of *education*. It is beyond the reach of the Indian — we are bound to furnish it. We deprive him of the power to avail himself of the former means of support, &c, or to continue his former habits of hunting and warfare — in so doing we assume, in fact, as well as in the theory before stated, the obligation to provide some other mode of subsistence for him.

Indeed, the duty has been recognised, and in many of the tribes, has been performed. Colonies and schools have been established and sustained by the government, for the express purpose of communicating knowledge and civilization; and individuals are employed to act directly upon them. Benevolent societies have gone forward in the same work, with noble zeal, and with gratifying success; and even the distant Flatheads of the Rocky Mountains now excite the interest and efforts of one of the largest and most zealous classes of Christians in our country. All this is in a high degree praiseworthy; and is a new and absolute pledge that *the work shall go on*. We are committed, as a nation, and as a body of Christians, on this point, and we are bound to go on, until, as our settlements advance, not one uncivilized and uninstructed Indian shall be found within our borders. We are urged on by interest too; for no instance can be named, in which this process of civilization and instruction has not rendered a tribe less savage and less dangerous; and the very warriors who were ready to imbrue their hands in the white man's blood at the slightest provocation, have become his firmest friends, and in many cases, his obedient pupils.

Books have been published in several of their languages, and in a former volume, we have described the extraordinary effort to which Séquoyah, the Indian Cadmus, was prompted by his intercourse with whites, and the singularly perfect alphabet which he produced.* We are gratified to find that an important addition has

* See Annals of Education, Vol. II. p. 174.

been made to the means of instruction by Dr Edwin James, of the United States Army, who is so well known as a traveller and a man of science. He has been engaged for ten years with a zeal and patience which can be admired, but can never be compensated, in translating the New Testament into the Chippewa language, and the work has recently been published in the English character.* This translation brings the truths of Christianity within the reach of six tribes in the Northwest, and it is said, of many others, to whom the Chippewa language is intelligible. We are happy in being able to present our readers with an account of the language itself, in an essay read by Dr James to the American Lyceum.†

Chippewa Language.

The Chippewa is one of a group of about twenty dialects, spoken in a vast region of North America, extending in every direction around the Lake of the Woods, and the sources of the Mississippi. This group of dialects has been called the Algonkin, or Leni Lenape, in the early and more recent works on the languages of America. The Chippewa has many words in common with the Delaware, it is closely allied to the Massachusetts as preserved in the works of Mr Elliot, to the aboriginal language of

* By Packard & Van Benthuysen, Albany.

† Dr James has in the course of his official duties, been much among the Indians. How he is looked upon, by one of their chiefs at least, will appear from the annexed copy of a letter addressed to him by Thegud, a Chief of the band of Chippewas living at Tukquimenon, on the south shore of Lake Superior. *N. Y. American.*

Bowweting, May 12, 1833.

My Brother — Now I cause this letter to be written to you. I wish to tell you my thoughts. I was very sorry when I heard that you had gone away. I wished I had watched to have seen you. But I am yet alive. It pleases our Great Father in Heaven that I should still live here on the earth. And also of you I yet hear the sound of your living. I think great thanks that we are both yet alive. Perhaps we may not expect to see each other again on this earth. Do you take heed also to this our religion. I do not say this as distrusting you. I only am to be pitied. I was too long lost; and even now I am very much afraid of those things that destroyed us. But as much as I can now do, that I may look carefully to our Great Father in Heaven, this is what I say to you now.

And I tell you now how I have lived. I lost one of my children. Afterwards I thought I could never be comforted, I had so loved my child. But I thank him that is above, that he thought good to leave me my other children. I am very much pleased at what the whites have done here at Bowweting. Truly they have had compassion on us. I am not now such as I used to be before I prayed. I do not now wish for those things I used to wish for. Now those that are here at Bowweting are to me as my own brothers. I tell you also that teachers are more and more abundant at Bowweting, but there are still many wicked men rejecting prayer [religion.] This is all I shall say to you. I request that you also will send to me your thinking. I salute all your family.

THEGUD.

a large part of Lower Canada, as may be inferred from specimens in the compilation of De Laet, the works of the Jesuits, and other early travellers.

It is now extensively spoken as a mother tongue by all the tribes about Lake Superior, on the St Croix, and all the eastern branches of the Upper Mississippi, by those on both sides of Lake Huron, and a large proportion of those about Lake Michigan, and as an acquired language by many among the Dahcotah lands, occupying the country between the Mississippi and Missouri, by the Winnebagoes, Poways, and a few among the Pawnees. The language of the Sacs and Foxes, of Black Hawk and his warriors, is a dialect chiefly distinguished from the Chippewa by substituting the consonant sound *l* for the equivalent *r*, as the Creek takes *r* in the same place. Its affinities with the *Menomonic*, *Kickâpo*, *Shawne*, and other more southern dialects, are more remote, but very manifest, both in the sound of words, and other peculiarities. *Of the history* of this language, as far as it can be derived from existing materials, foreign to itself, little need be said. It once extended over a large portion of the present territory of the United States. It was spoken on the banks of the Hudson, the Delaware, the James river, as well as in New England and Canada, while the less tractable tribes, speaking the guttural languages of the Iroquois stock, probably occupied the country about the great lakes. The race who speak it have been driven from place to place, harassed and hemmed in, they are now comparatively few in number, destitute and miserable in condition, shivering and starving in the cold morasses of the Northern Lakes. *Of the natural history of the language*, we may remark, *first*, that it is harmonious and pleasing to the ear, having nearly such an intermixture of sounds of the different classes, as we meet with in the best European dialects. Hence it is acquired and spoken with facility by Europeans and their descendants. While the Iroquois, in speaking which the lips are never closed, the guttural Winebago, the Chippewyan, the Dahcotah, and Pawnee, in which are few *labial* and *liquid* sounds, are rarely acquired, and more rarely spoken well by foreigners. The consonant sounds, *b*, *r*, *f*, or *ph*, *v*, are not found in the Chippewa. Those of *b*, and *p*, *d*, and *t*, *g*, hard, and *k*, are so nearly interchangable, in all cases, that it would probably be well to dispense with one set of these characters.

Second. It is a *primary* and *pure* language. By this it is intended that there are few foreign words, and *no* foreign idioms. The minds of the Indians are in a great measure destitute of that excursive and accumulating power which has enriched our mother English with shreds and patches from all languages, past and present, dead and living.

While we recognise in the New England word *tompung* applied to a one-horse sled, the Chippewa *Ctâban*, in *wegewam*, *mukkesin*, and some others, the words of this dialect transplanted into our own; and in the word *Yankee*, now not at all used by the Indians, one of our own words borrowed from them under a vicious pronunciation, we rarely find the Indians using, or attempting to use, words from our language. Instead of adopting the monosyllable *Cow*, the Indian prefers to use his own designation for the Bison. Instead of the easy word *horse*, he employs, in accordance with the combining and explanatory genius of his own language, the compound *babashekokashe*, a word worthy of Linnæus himself, signifying *the animal that has a single nail on each leg*.

Third. It is in a great measure destitute of prepositions and auxiliary words; hence the great and almost exclusive importance of the *verb*. In Chippewa this part of speech may aptly be called the *working word*. As in the eastern languages, the *ground form* of the verb, which is either monosyllabic or polysyllabic, much more commonly the former, receives *affixes of person*; and these are both prefixed and suffixed, as is also the case with the numerous particles used with the radical form, to express the various modifications of significations. As the language is probably more destitute of proper auxiliaries than either the Hebrew or the Arabic, so it is likely the number of conjugations exceeds that in either of those languages, while the number of Paradigmata required to exhibit the plan of formation of all the verbs, is probably less than in either. By way of illustrating the manner in which the successive trains of forms or conjugations take rise from the radical syllable, we may instance the two verbs *to see*, and *to hear*. The radical syllables, or ground forms, stripped of all circumstance, are *wâb*, see, *nōnd*, hear, in the third person singular, indicative present, they become *wâbe*, he sees, *nōndum*, he hears; and the signification is not so abstract as in our language, but it is implied that something is heard or seen. The more accurate rendering would be, *he 'sees' it, he hears it*. This then is one conjugation. That which would follow in the order of our thoughts would perhaps be the conjugation expressing the idea of an animate object, to which the signification of the verb may be said to pass over. To effect this, the syllable appended to the ground form in the former case is dropped, and other particles substituted, thus *wâbe* becomes *owâbomán*, *nōndum* becomes *onōndowwân*, he sees him, he hears him, where we have a prefixed pronoun, and a suffixed termination depending upon that prefix. The suffixed pronoun is usually pleonastic; thus if an Indian says, *newâboniân*, *babashekokazheen*, it is equivalent to saying in English, 'I see him a horse;' hence this redundant manner of expression is commonly observed in the imperfect English of such

Indians as learn a little of that language. Another conjugation is passive in signification; *newâbun diigo*, I am seen; *neennŏndágo*, I am heard. Here it will be perceived these verbs fall not under the same paradigm, for while one receives only the two syllables *ágo*, the other receives four, *undiigo*. In another conjugation, a particle added to the passive form expresses an accessary idea of great importance, while *newâbun diigo*, and *neewnŏndágo*, express definitely the ideas 'I am seen,' 'I am heard, *newâbundiigowiz*, and *neennŏndágowiz* express with equal certainty and precision, 'I am seen of the Deity,' 'I am heard of the Deity.' *Neennŏndumoshewa* signifies 'I cause to be heard,' *newâbun diewa*, 'I cause to be seen,' or 'I show.' To mention all the conjugations that occur in almost any one verb, with an illustration of each by a single example would exceed the limits proposed in this communication. To give an intimation of the great importance of the verb, and to acquaint the philologist with the manner in which its various and complicated applications are made is all that is here intended. Without a careful study of the verb, arranged according to the above suggestions, in the manner of the Shemitic languages, any attempt to acquire a competent knowledge of the Chippewa by a foreigner, would prove abortive. This will be the more evident, if we consider that in a great majority of the verbs, there are from 15 to 20 conjugations, and that each of these in all its derivatives, is in signification really unlike all the rest. For example, the derived substantives remotely connected with either of the two radical words above given, have a great range of signification; e. g. *nŏndumŏwin*, *nondágawin*, *nŏndágowin*, *nondágowizzewin*, *nondumozhewawin*, *nondumokâzowin*, and many others which might be enumerated, all give the substantive *idea of hearing, or the hearing*, but under great and essential modifications. They mean according to the order in which they stand, 'the hearing it; the hearing it by the agency of some one; the being heard; the being heard of the Deity; the making to be heard; the affecting or pretending to hear;' so that though either of them might be rendered *hearing*, that word would give no knowledge of the true import of either. This feature of the language is rendered peculiarly manifest in the conversation of such as speak it imperfectly, as an acquired tongue; who, when they talk of almost any thing, introduce great confusion of words, such as would result from calling *love*, self-love, the being loved, reciprocal love, the causing to be loved, or something else equally remote from what was intended.

It has been the more dwelt on here, with a view of fixing attention upon a peculiarity of the language which may not be easy to name, but which consists in the remarkable definiteness, and closeness of application, of all phrases and words. Abstract terms

and words of general application are few. It has been stated by one who made the human mind and its operation his peculiar study, that men have never been found with a language so poor as to have no words equivalent to *time* and *space*. But I can truly say, that after many years of careful inquiry, aided by the best interpreters, I have been able to find no such words in the Chippewa. Our substantive conceptions, or ideas, if the word be more intelligible, of *time, space, duration, eternity, cause*, and *effect*, and some others, if not wholly foreign to the thoughts of the Indian, cannot be expressed by substantive terms in his language. If father Saturn has ever been revealed as an abstract and independent existence to the mind of the poor Indians, the conception has left no visible trace in their language.

I know of no substantive in any Indian language equivalent to *resheeth arohe*, or *beginning*, as those words are used in the Hebrew, Greek, and English versions of Genesis. From this remark it will appear that the language, as we might have expected, deals little in abstractions. It is conversant with visible, tangible, and sensible objects; and when no more is aimed at than to speak of such objects, it is comprehensive and forcible. The tendency to compounding, or agglutination, which feature has been so ably and fully explained by the distinguished President of the Am. Ph. Soc. gives it in many instances a wonderful power of compression, like the following: *nuhmuhqueem, kesebekeengwam*. Not only do these words fully express the meaning of the Greek, *aleipsai sonteen kephalen kai to prosopon son nipsai*, but in the first imperative the expression is enriched by a distinct allusion to the animal from which the anointing oil is derived, for so we understand the syllable *muh*; the word when fully translated signifying, 'anoint thine head with bear's oil.' This peculiarity of rigid, specific application, it will readily be perceived, while it may give the words an admirable degree of definite and explicit adaptation to particular cases, is an obstacle to that free currency, if I may be allowed the expression, so needful to, or rather so inseparable from, the great enlargement and activity of the intellectual powers. Perhaps this feature of the language cannot be better illustrated than by the comparison just alluded to. In the Indian, there is, owing to the deficiency of the small change of auxiliaries and prepositions, a difficulty in the ready adaptation of the expression to the particular case, while on the other hand, when the particular case provided for occurs, the expression is often more definite and perfect than in our language. Take, for example, the common illustration founded on the double plural of the verb. The expression, *we will go*, in English is ambiguous. The question immediately arises, who are the persons intended by the pronoun *we*. The Indian says either

keguhdezhamen, 'we will go,' including in the prefix *ke* of the second person, the individual addressed, or he says *neen guhdezhamen*, we will go, in which instance the person spoken to is excluded. A similar illustration may be taken from that usage of the language which defines, when persons are spoken of, whether they be living or dead. *My father said*, may appear sufficiently definite, but the Indian commonly distinguishes he that was my father said, *nōsenâbun geeketto*, or my father said, *nōs ge ekctto*, as the case may be. Allusion has been made in the former part of this paper, to some features of remarkable similarity between the Chippewa and Hebrew languages. A field of interesting research is thus opened, which time will not now allow us to enter. We shall conclude by noticing a few such instances of merely etymological resemblance as occur to recollection, being well aware that the enlightened and philosophic inquirer will regard them as evidences of nothing, but that in all languages similar sounds will occasionally be found to be the representatives of similar ideas. At the same time that this remark is made, our acknowledged ignorance of the true sounds of the Hebrew letters is not forgotten.

1st. The verb of *existence*, hâyâ, is equivalent in grammatical power, and nearly so in signification, to the Indian Tà; the form in the Hebrew is 3 Sing. Praet. In the Indian 3 Sing, Pres.

2d. The radical syllable in Chippewa signifying to come, is *be*, as *be ezhà*, he cometh, *be wesenin*, come thou and eat. Some of the forms derived from *bo* nearly correspond, as *he gadth*, a troop cometh.

3d. Bayahbet, he looked; enâbit, Chippewa, if he looked; rogahbit, with the prefixed *vav*, makes a word very similar in sound to enâbit.

4. *Shemesh*, sun, *gezis*, sun.

Such etymologies as the foregoing, however, though a multitude of them could be found, which perhaps is not the case, would satisfy no judicious inquirer. They might be valued by the ethnographer, who found in the word *missi*, which he erroneously supposed to mean river, the proof that the people who gave a name to the father of waters, came from a particular district of Asia, but among those who hear me, they would be regarded, as they truly are, of no value, and wholly fallacious when taken as guides in tracing the labyrinths in the descent and filiation of nations. Some future opportunity may occur for entering more carefully upon the investigation of these marked resemblances in grammatical peculiarity, in structure of sentences and manner of expression, which clearly prove, that the Indian languages, whatever may have been the origin of the people who speak them, are more similar, (not to say akin) to the Shemitic dialects, than to those of the Caucassian race.

Art. III. — Autobiography of Zerah Colburn.

A Memoir of Zerah Colburn, written by himself. Containing an Account of the first Discovery of his remarkable Powers; his Travels in America and residence in Europe; a History of the various Plans devised for his Patronage; his return to this Country, and the causes which led him to his present Profession; with his peculiar Methods of Calculation. Springfield: Published by G. & C. Merriam.

The name of *Zerah Colburn* is sufficient to excite intense curiosity, especially when connected with autobiography. The book before us is written in the third person, and contains a simple and interesting exhibition of the intellectual and moral character of the writer, and a narrative of the principal event of his chequered life. The Annals of Education ought to embrace some account of so extraordinary a phenomena, in the history of the human mind; and we shall find in a brief sketch of the contents of this work, the most important lessons on the dangers connected with precocity, and the manner in which we ought to guard against them.

The subject of this memoir is a native of Vermont. He was born in the town of Cabot, Caledonia county, on the 1st of September, 1804. His parents were plain persons, in straightened circumstances, struggling to support a family, of which Zerah was the sixth. He was distinguished from the rest, only by a superfluous finger growing from the outside of each hand, (a mark which was found on his father and two of his sons,) and by the appearance of more than usual backwardness. At a distance from school, he received only about six weeks' instruction, during the first six years of his life; and it was not until this period was almost past, that he exhibited any peculiar talent. We give his own narrative of the singular occurrence which first brought it into notice.

'Sometime in the beginning of August, 1810, when about one month under six years of age, being at home, while his father was employed at a joiner's workbench, Zerah was on the floor, playing in the chips; suddenly he began to say to himself, '5 times 7 are 35 — 6 times 8 are 48, &c.' His father's attention being arrested by hearing this, so unexpected in a child so young, and who had hitherto possessed no advantages, except perhaps six weeks' attendance at the district school, that summer, he left his work, and turning to him began to examine him through the multiplication table. He thought it possible that Zerah had learnt this from the other boys, but finding him perfect in the table, his attention was more deeply fixed; and he asked the product of 13×97 to which 1261 was instantly given in answer. He now concluded that something unusual had actually taken place; indeed he has often said he should not have been more surprised, if some one had risen up out of the earth and stood erect before him.

It was not long before a neighbor rode up, and calling in, was informed of the singular occurrence. He, too, desired to be a witness of the fact; and soon it became generally known through the town. Though many were inclined to doubt the correctness of the reports they heard, a personal examination attested their truth. Thus the story originated, which within the short space of a year, found its way, not only through the United States, but also reached Europe; and foreign Journals of literature, both in England and France, expressed their surprise at the uncommon incident.'

Soon after this occurrence, Mr Colburn was induced to carry his son to Montpelier, during the session of the Legislature. Here he astonished every one by his powers of calculation, and exhibited at the same time much sprightliness of mind, combined with the playfulness of childhood, in the midst of these surprising efforts. At Hanover, Dr Wheelock, the president of the University, offered to provide for his education; but more brilliant visions led the father on, — we suspect to the great injury of himself and his son. Prudence would have dictated that a power so extraordinary should have been used with peculiar caution, instead of being exhausted, as we are told it has been, by undue exercise. But unhappily, Physiology was not even heard of in this case, and her pleas would probably have been unavailing in opposition to the crowd of motives on the other side. The father proceeded to Boston with his infant prodigy; and excited no less astonishment among the scientific men of the metropolis, than in the mountains of Vermont.

A proposition was made here, by a number of gentlemen to provide for his education. The father, with more of personal interest, we think, than of parental affection, claimed a large compensation for resigning his son; but we cannot wonder that a plan involving, as this is said to have done, the continued exhibition of his child, as well as a transfer of all his paternal rights, should have been rejected. Zerah was next exhibited in the principal cities of the United States, as far south as Norfolk; and Mr Colburn returned home with funds which might have rendered him comfortable for life upon his farm. He resolved, however, to seek wider fame, and greater gain, in Europe; and embarked for England in April, 1812. In London, he was visited by the royal and the noble in great numbers. The Princess Charlotte was among those who called upon him, and the distinguished mathematician, Bonnycastle, took a peculiar interest in his surprising talent.

The following are some of the specimens given of his performances, as described in a London prospectus.

'Among other questions, the duke of York asked the number of seconds in the time elapsed since the commencement of the Christian Era, 1813 years, 7 months, 27 days. The answer was correctly given: 57,234,384,000. "At a meeting of his friends, he undertook and succeeded in raising the number 8 to the sixteenth power, and gave the answer correctly in the last result, viz. 281,474,976,710,656.

He was then tried as to other numbers, consisting of one figure, all of which he raised as high as the tenth power, with so much facility and despatch that the person appointed to take down the results was obliged to enjoin him not to be too rapid. With respect to numbers consisting of two figures, he would raise some of them to the sixth, seventh, and eighth power, but not always with equal facility; for the larger the products became, the more difficult he found it to proceed. He was asked the square root of 106,929, and before the number could be written down he immediately answered, 327. He was then requested to name the cube root of 268,336,125, and with equal facility and promptness he replied 645. One of the party requested him to name the factors which produced the number 247,483, which he did by mentioning 941 and 263, which, indeed, are the only two factors that will produce it. Another then proposed 171,395, and he named the following factors as the only ones, viz: 5×34279, 7×24485, 59×2905, 83×2065, 35×4897, 295×581, 413×415. He was then asked to give the factors of

36,083, but he immediately replied that it had none ; which in fact was the case, as 36,083 is a prime number."

'It had been asserted and maintained by the French mathematicians that 4294967297 (= 232 + 1) was a prime number; but the celebrated Euler detected the error by discovering that it was equal to 641×6,700,417. The same number was proposed to this child, who found out the factors by the mere operation of his mind.'

It appears that this power was not, as is often believed in such extraordinary cases, purely intuitive, but like every other faculty, was capable of improvement.

'There was, through practice, an increase in his power of computation; when first beginning, he went no farther in multiplying than three places of figures; it afterwards became a common thing with him to multiply four places by four; in some instances five figures by five have been given.'

The author observes, afterwards, that 'the faculty which he possessed, as it increased and strengthened by practice, began speedily to depreciate,' when exhibition was given up.

Notwithstanding these unprecedented and astonishing performances, the profits of this exhibition, as stated by his son, were very small, in consequence of the low price of admission, (1 shilling sterling, or 22 cts.) and the great expenses attending it. It is singular that in a nation so liberal and so curious, the first, and wealthiest people seldom gave more than this trifling fee. During the period of this exhibition, Zerah's education was necessarily neglected. He had learned to read and write, and was fond of reading as an amusement. His progress in studies generally, was respectable, but not uncommon. He observes himself, 'The acquirement of a language, was easy and pleasant ; arithmetic (in the books) entertaining; geometry, plain but dull. 'The study of arithmetic,' he remarks in another place, 'was not particularly easy to him,' but pleasing. Mental calculation was easy, but not so agreeable as to occupy his attention, unless when questioned.

Various plans were now proposed to provide more amply for his support and education, of which the publication of a portrait was the only successful one. A subscription was set on foot for a memoir ; but even the distinguished names of Mackintosh, and Davy, on the committee, were not sufficient to prevent its failure.

A visit to Paris was now suggested, and while less *general* interest was excited there, more efficient aid was afforded. Rooms were hired and paid for, by American patrons. A French teacher was engaged, by whose aid Zerah spoke the language with 'considerable ease,' in three or four months. He was presented to the French institute, and ultimately, by the aid of Washington Irving, a place was obtained for him in the college of Henry IV, one of the government schools. It was the singular fortune of Zerah, that this favor was granted under the reign of Louis XVIII, but finally bestowed by Napoleon, during his reign of the Hundred Days, in May, 1820, and continued after the second restoration. The account of the discipline of the school is interesting in itself, and will show the author's style of description.

'The annual expense of the school, comprising everything — board, clothing, books, tuition, medical treatment if needed, &c, &c, was 1000 livres (200 dollars). The purchase of an outfit with which to enter, clad and furnished in every necessary, amounted to 750 livres (150 dollars). But this latter sum, the officers of the establishment expected Mr C. to pay. When this should be paid, his son might remain in the institution until his studies were completed.

'The seminary in which Zerah was now placed, was in almost every respect a specimen of his genius, who at the military college in Brienne laid the foundation of his greatness, and commenced his career, afterwards so remarkable and important to the interests of Europe. The scholars were habited in a blue uniform, with the Eagle of France on the buttons, a large cocked hat, and tri-colored cockade. They rose and slept, studied and played, ate and refrained from eating, at beat of drum. In winter they rose before day to commence their studies. They were detained in their school room not only when met in class for recitation, but also during certain hours allotted to preparing their lessons, under the care of a teacher. Three times a day they were let out to play.

'Their breakfast consisted of dry bread and water. Dinner at noon consisted of soup, not made in the best culinary stlye, meat, and something else as a third course to finish the meal. At dinner and supper, their drink consisted of their country wine mixed with water; this they called 'Abundance.' They had a luncheon of dry bread at four, and supper at eight, when they went to bed. Previous to undressing at night, and before leaving the dormitory in the morning, one of the boys was called upon to repeat the Lord's prayer. No correction with a stick, or any other weapon, was allowed; but sometimes a tutor was unmercifully liberal with his hand. Imprisonment for days, in case of a flagrant offence; dry bread at dinner or at supper; withholding from the scholars permission to go home once in a fortnight, and spending the hours allotted to recreation in writing off one, two, or more hundred lines from some Latin author, were among the punishments most in use. Expulsion was seldom resorted to.*

'Their hours of recreation were spent under the immediate superintendence of an officer of the establishment: no quarreling, boxing, or fighting, was allowed. They had two Sabbaths in the week, Thursday and Sunday, on which study was suspended — at least the recitations in class — and the Romish mass attended in the college chapel by all except six or seven, who claimed exemption on account of being Protestants: after which, in pleasant weather, they were led out to walk in various parts of the city, or the adjacent suburbs. On all other occasions, they were confined by bars and bolts from any intercourse with the populous city, and all its temptations.

'With a view to render the scholars hardy and robust, anything like a surtout or great coat was not furnished by the stewards, and the use of them in the winter discountenanced. To such as preferred the improvement of their own minds to the relaxations and amusements so frequently prized by youth, this seminary afforded peculiar advantages. It is in the author's mind a question, if there be in England or America any school that can compare with the French Lyceum. Study was made an active business; a discipline (not nominal merely,) was enforced; retirement was inevitable; board, clothing, and every other necessary were at hand — all within the limit of two hundred dollars per annum.

'After the battle, which terminated the hope of Napoleon, in 1815, while the Parisians were expecting the approach of the allied armies, the scholars received permission to go out to a certain spot on one of the roads that led to the city, and dig trenches to fortify the passage into their capital. With one consent, and frequent shouts of 'Vive l'Empereur!' they sallied forth, the young man and the child seven or eight years old, and spent the day in that employment. With little exception, the youthful community were warm in their attachment to the Imperial government.'

After his son's establishment at this school, Mr Colburn returned to London to reside; and by the agency of his patrons there, he was

'* Some time after the king's return in 1815, a son of General Savary was expelled for disloyalty in writing on the wall, "Long live the Emperor."'

induced to take him away from the Lyceum, and place him again under their care. An efficient and faithful protector for Zerah at length appeared, in the person of the Earl of Bristol, who seemed not less solicitous for the moral and religious cultivation of Zerah, than for his intellectual improvement. He engaged soon after to pay his expenses at the Westminster school, until his education should be completed. Zerah entered Westminster at the age of twelve; and his superior age, and acquisitions, enabled him, in the two years and nine months of his residence there, to make acquisitions, which usually occupy four or five years. In regard to his intellectual character, at this time, the writer observes:

'He learned with facility, and the continual practice preserved what he acquired fresh in his memory. It is, however, a truth which may as well be stated here as any where else, that the mind of Zerah was never apparently endowed with such a talent for close thinking on intricate subjects as many possess. He was not peculiarly fortunate in arriving at a result which did not readily present itself, or for which the process leading thereto was not soon discovered. It is for this reason that he has been unable to discover a prospect of his extensive usefulness in mathematical studies, or of justifying the high expectations which many had reasonably formed on account of his early endowment, and hence he feels more reconciled than he otherwise might in abandoning the wisdom and literature of this world for the duties of his present important calling. While in school he generally sustained himself among the four at the head of the class; but was not remarkable either for quickness of mind or closeness of application.'

The infamous custom of 'fagging' existed in this school, which allows older pupils to demand the most menial services from the younger. In consequence of some deficiency in Zerah, an elder boy inflicted severe injury upon him, in the most wanton manner. A spirited remonstrance, and even threats on the part of Mr Colburn were necessary, before the master could be induced to protect him from this outrage.

The Earl of Bristol was subsequently led to think it advisable, that Zerah should be placed under the care of a clergyman in the country. Mr Colburn was not satisfied with the character of the proposed tutor; and after endeavoring to dissuade the Earl from his plan, he rather chose to relinquish his patronage, than consent to it; and thus he was again compelled to provide for his support and education.

While Zerah had been thus kindly sustained, Mr Colburn, who was not acquainted with any art by which he could earn a subsistence in London, had been suffering with poverty, and was ill-prepared to assume any additional burden. Finding that public exhibition could no longer be relied on, and that the patronage and promises of the great were sadly deceptive, he proposed to his son, at the age of fifteen, to try the stage; and Zerah, seduced by the false glare of public exhibitions, consented. He was accordingly introduced to Mr Charles Kemble, who gave him instruction for two or three months. He was favorably received upon the stage; but excited no interest in any part of Great Britain, which could justify his employers in giving him any compensation. Disappointed in his fond ex-

pectation of fame and profit in this occupation, he attempted at the age of sixteen, to compose a tragedy, founded on the translation of Tasso's Jerusalem; but he says with great simplicity, 'it never had any merit, or any success.' The description of his own state at this time, excites a sigh.

'Much of the time since the writer left Westminster school, had been passed in comparative unhappiness. Not only at times scantily supplied with the necessaries of life, but also a victim to that oppressive feeling which rises up in the moments of inactivity and sloth, from having no employment to pursue, and which spreads its disheartening influence all over the mind. Of all lives, it would seem that his is the most ignoble and joyless, who has nothing to do with or for himself, in using the talents committed to his charge. Frequently walking down to the wharf, or the beach, and beholding vessels whose sails were filling to the breeze, bound for an American port, his heart would become sad, and burn with desire to be on the way to his native land.'

His return to London brought no pleasant change in his circumstances. A new attempt upon the stage was equally unsuccessful; and he passes over the two following years with a few remarks, which have a bearing upon enterprises of greater importance.

'He has not patience to record or even to think of his situation from September, 1820, to 1st of January, 1822. It is true he had bread to eat; it is true he was engaged in preparing some tragedy that might succeed in a theatre. Five different pieces were written, but not one was either acted or printed. But the lack of occupation, the continual alienation of friends, who were becoming weary of contributing to his wants, and indeed the necessity of applying to individuals for their charity and benevolence, have left upon his mind a strong feeling of disgust, and it is painful to remember, much more to record, the history of such a period.

'Were it not for the assurance he has that his father was actuated by a sincere, but very misguided wish, by remaining in the midst of all his want and suffering to wait the anticipated approach of better days, his son would be disposed to look back upon his course with severe disapprobation. Still the first and chiefest portion of blame rests on those who being struck with the wonder, without suitable reflection proposed their plans; or, being destitute of perseverance, suffered their plans to come to nought and left the ill-fated victim, who blindly put confidence in their promises, to extricate himself from difficulty in the best manner that he could. And it is an inference left upon the author's mind, from the experience that he has had with Committees in England, that unless such associations have some common and abiding bond of interest to preserve their energies alive and united, the whole of them are worth less than one man with half a share of common courage and devotion to his work.'

In the beginning of 1822, at the age of 18, Zerah began his first course of useful activity, by opening a small school for the common branches of an English education; but was still compelled to rely on the liberality of others, for a part of the support of his father and himself. In December of this year, the constitution of Mr Colburn began to sink, doubtless from the influence of care and disappointment, which had been for so many years preying upon him. Zerah was compelled to leave his school to attend upon him; and in two months he followed him to the grave. It is touching to observe the filial affection so constantly manifested throughout this work, which desires to conceal every error and defect in a parent; but we cannot help regretting, so far as human foresight goes, that more enlargement of mind and of feeling had not fallen to the lot of one entrusted with the direction of so extraordinary talents.

About this time Dr Young, the secretary of the Board of Longitude, employed Zerah in making astronomical calculations; and he succeeded in earning a handsome support in this way; but the love of country prevailed over every other feeling. 'Wearied and disgusted with the pomp and state surrounding many who had little besides wealth or title to recommend them,' he longed for a more congenial atmosphere; and aided by his friends, and especially by his former liberal patron, the Earl of Bristol, whose kind feelings had not been destroyed by the opposition to his own plan, he finally embarked in May, 1822, to return to America; and after an absence of twelve years and three months, reached New York, in June, 1823, almost pennyless. The liberality of merchants there provided him the means of returning to his mother and family; and he came among them, unknown, but still happy to see his native hills, even in poverty. He received, while here, letters and supplies from the Earl of Bristol, which are highly creditable to his character.

In March, 1825, he removed to Burlington, in Vermont, and commenced the instruction of a class in French. Here his mind became deeply interested on religious subjects, and he united himself to a Presbyterian church. His desire of being a preacher could not be gratified in this church, without a course of previous study. Further examination of religious opinions led him to adopt the doctrines of the Wesleyan Methodists. He became, soon after, a preacher in this denomination; and he still continues to pursue the arduous labors of his profession, with deep interest.

We have thus given a mere sketch of the incidents detailed in this work. In addition to these, the volume contains many amusing descriptions of the scenes and events through which he passed, and much that exhibits his own opinions and character in an interesting light. It will amply repay a perusal.

The powers of calculation which have excited so much astonishment, may be estimated to some extent from the following examples of questions resolved.

'*In Boston, on his first visit, in the fall of* 1810.

'The number of seconds in 2,000 years was required.

730,000 days.
17,520,000 hours.
1,051,200,000 minutes.
63,072,000,000 seconds — Answer.

'Allowing that a clock strikes 156 times in 1 day, how many times will it strike in 2000 years? 113,880,000 times.

'What is the product of 12,225 multiplied by 1,223? 14,951,175.

'What is the square of 1,449? 2,099,601.

'Supposing I have a cornfield, in which are 7 acres, having 17 rows to each acre; 64 hills to each row; 8 ears on a hill, and 150 kernels on an ear; how many kernels on the cornfield? 9,139,200.

In Portsmouth, New Hampshire, June, 1811.

'Admitting the distance between Concord and Boston to be 65 miles, how many steps must I take in going this distance, allowing that I go three feet at a step? The answer, 114,400, was given in ten seconds.

'How many days and hours since the Christian Era commenced, 1811 years? Answered in twenty seconds. 661,015 days. 15,864,360 hours.

'How many seconds in eleven years? Answer in four seconds; 346,896,000.

'What sum multiplied by itself will produce 998,001? In less than four seconds, 999.

'How many hours in 38 years, 2 months, and 7 days? In six seconds; 334,488.

'At one time in London he was requested to square 888,888. He gave it correctly, 790,121,876,544; and afterwards multiplied this product by 49, making 38,715,971,950,656, being the square of 6,222,216.'

In regard to the *methods* of calculation, it was some time before Zerah could discover his own train of thought sufficiently to describe it, and when urged to the task, he would sometimes even cry. Some account of these methods is given in the appendix, which fully proves their originality. The method of extracting the square root is thus stated.

Rule.

'In extracting the Square Root, his first object was to ascertain what number squared would give a sum ending with the two last figures of the given Square; and then what number squared will come nearest under the first figure in the given square when it consists of five places. If there are six figures in the proposed sum, the nearest square under the *two* first figures must be sought, which figures combined will give the answer required.

'Suppose it be required to extract the square root of 92,416. First inquire what sum squared ends in 16? Ans. 04; here we have the two last figures of the Root. Next, as the sum contains five figures, inquire what number squared comes nearest to 9? Ans. 3. Put them together, 304 — the number sought.'

The process of multiplication is precisely analogous to that employed by the method of Pestalozzi, in which the numbers are multiplied from left to right: thus 1223, if multiplied by 351, would first be multiplied by 3000, thus; $1000 \times 300 + 200 \times 300 + 20 \times 300 + 3 \times 200$; and so on. The process for extracting the cube root, and for finding the factors of numbers, are also described at full length, and furnish a curious exhibition of original solutions for the most difficult problems in arithmetic, by a child of six years old.

A few 'pieces in rhyme,' as they are called by the author, written in the days of boyhood, are annexed 'rather to give a more full idea of the subject of the memoir in other things than arithmetic.' The following are among the best specimens.

'THE EXILE.

'In festive hall the sprightly dancers bound,
And move, obedient to the harper's sound;
Youth's mirthful revels cheer the noon of night,
And age's cheek reflects a gladsome light.
Far from the train, on tissued couch reclined,
Mark ye yon lone one, who no joy can find;
Observe that brow by many a line defaced;
His country's exile, by dishonor chased;
Ambition's votary in his youthful prime;
Now driven, unfriended, from his native clime.

* * * * *

And should by chance some strain salute his ear,
Once heard with rapture in his native vale,
Before in blasted youth, his spirit fell,
In agonizing hues his thought portrays
Scenes as delightful in his early days.'

'INVITATION.

'Deeds of praise are unavailing,
All our idle works are dead,
His the glory of fulfilling
That emprize for which he bled.
Songs of triumph, loudly ringing,
Should his boundless love proclaim:
Hear the choirs of angels singing
Loud hosannas to his name.
In the courts of love immortal,
Harps celestial sound his praise;
Now, even now, heav'n's brightest portal
Echoes back the hallowed lays.
Mortals come! with reverence bending
Round the footst-ps of his throne;
Now embrace the wide extending
Full atonement of his Son.'

In reviewing the whole work, we are struck with the simplicity of the narrative, and the absence of all ostentation on the one hand, or of false modesty on the other. The termination of Zerah's singular career is a disappointment to the hopes of many; and yet there is no absolute proof that this early precocity in one particular talent would have been followed by eminence, even in mathematical science. That he was by no means distinguished on other subjects, furnishes new evidence of the little value of *mere genius*, compared with a strong and well balanced mind; and should check the vanity of those, who sometimes almost idolize the indications of it in their children. It is as if the whole strength of the body were condensed in a single limb; and the ordinary practice is as irrational, as it would be to exercise this limb only. Indeed, the little indication we have of any superiority in Zerah even on this point, in mature years, ought to serve as a warning to parents not to be led by the brilliancy of any particular faculty to cultivate that, especially. On the contrary, they should pay a more strict attention to others, lest the superior faculty should be exhausted by excessive exercise, and the balance of the mind destroyed by its predominance.

As certainly as the eye will be injured by employing it too closely or too much, so certainly will any faculty of the mind be impaired by excessive action; and we might as well attempt to perfect the power of vision by straining the eye from morning to night, as to increase the strength of the mind by unceasing or excessive efforts.

Art. IV. — Professional Education of Teachers.

It was lately remarked by a physician who had attained a high rank in his profession, that while he had felt it necessary to spend a long period in severe study to acquire the sciences on which the practice of medicine is based, chemistry, anatomy, and physiology, it is now extremely difficult to persuade young men that they deserve such attention. Their anxiety is 'to see cases,' to have instruction in 'practice,' before they have acquired the principles which would enable them to understand and apply what they see in practice.

This seems to us the very spirit of empiricism, and we lament that it should exist in any profession. We are told, indeed, that some men are born physicians, that theory only leads astray, and that practice is everything. But is not the absurdity obvious, of attempting to apply remedies to a bone or muscle whose form and texture we have never seen, and whose qualities and changes we have never studied? If there be one in a thousand, born a bone-setter, is it a reason why the rest of our surgeons should never

study the human frame? Does it even prove that those thus born would gain no superior skill by attending to it? We are told that '*poets* are born;' but who that compares the early effusions of our poets with their 'chastened numbers,' or who that reads the account of the erasures and interlineations and corrections of Pope's Homer, will doubt, that even the poet, must, to some extent, be *made*, in order to attain his full excellence? The genius most valuable to society, so far as our observation extends, consists rather in the ardent love for a given subject, aided and sustained by persevering study and labor.

We have been surprised to find a theory which is exploded in medicine, and theology, and eloquence, and poetry, and which never found place in any of the simplest mechanical occupations of life, should still find place in one intellectual profession. We are told that the schoolmaster is born; that no preparation is necessary to the favored few; and that no effort will be of any avail to the rest. Much difficulty is felt in regard to Phrenology in consequence of the bars it seems to put in the way of human improvement. But even phrenology admits no such inefficacy in education.

The following paragraph from the 'Connecticut Observer' of Sept. 9, fully expresses our views in reference to the necessity of preparations for teachers, — although directly applied to the utility of a periodical on education.

'Doubtless there is such a thing as tact in teaching — and one who has it not, will never be equal to him who has it, whatever books he may study, or with whatever principles he may fill his mind. But so there is tact in the medical profession, and tact in the clerical profession; but who supposes that, on this account, principles ought not to be studied by physicians and clergymen, and improvements to be treasured up in their minds? How long will the impression last that, like bone-setting and some other things which are transmissible, in the apprehension of some, the faculty of teaching is a natural endowment which art cannot, unless to a very limited extent, improve. The gipsies are said to claim, that fortune-telling is a kind of instinct with which their race is endowed by heaven, just as the dog has from nature a peculiar instinct which enables him to trace the footsteps of his master. If to the instinct of fortune-telling they were to add a claim to the instinct of teaching, we imagine they would find credence in the minds of not a few.

'We have already said that there is such a thing as a natural tact for teaching — but this tact, unlike instinct, is susceptible of improvement. And those who have it are the very persons who will receive most benefit from works like the 'Annals.' For the same reason that a youth who has a native talent for painting, should be instructed in the principles of the art, rather than one who has no taste for it, would we have those to whom nature has given a taste and a tact for instruction, taught the principles of the science, or if you please, art of education. There is hope in their case that the seed, which is sown in a favorable soil, will yield fruit abundantly.'

But is it indeed true, that the physician needs to study the anatomy of the body on which he is to operate, to see the practice of others, and to receive direct instructions on the principles which govern that practice, and yet that he who is to operate upon the mind, who is not merely to heal its occasional diseases, but to mould its very constitution, has no need of studying the structure of that

mind, or of observing the practice or learning the views and principles which able teachers have derived from long experience? Shall we refuse to commit the *bodies* or even the *shoes* of our children, to those who have not received long and thorough instruction in their business; and shall we yield their *minds* and *hearts*, during the greater part of the year, to the direction of those who have never learned how they ought to be formed or mended? The inconsistency is too gross to admit of argument.

But it is not, in fact, admitted in practice. If no preparation is necessary for teaching, why are lectures given, or books on education written? Have Locke, and Milton, and Watts, and Edgeworth, and More, and Hamilton, and Jardine, and many writers in our own country, spent their labor in vain on this subject? Have the multitude of teachers and parents who have read them, wasted their time? Have the children whose minds have been enlarged, and whose hearts have been cultivated by their aid, no reason to bless them? What teacher or parent ever read one of these treatises without feeling that he had gained something to fit him better for his work? Let this be conceded, and it is admitted that theory, and study, and preparation, are useful to teachers as well as to every other profession. And if this be admitted, is it not equally clear, that *thorough preparation* is important? Does it require less time to become acquainted with the structure, and functions, and diseases, and management of the mind, than is necessary to understand those of the body? Would it not be as rational to suppose that we can understand the practice of medicine merely from being patients of some eminent physician, as that we should be well acquainted with the art of teaching from our experience as pupils? We hope the time will soon come, when the professional education of teachers shall be deemed as much more important than that of physicians, as the mind is more important than the body;—when it will be believed that a half educated teacher is as likely as a half educated physician, to destroy twenty or thirty individuals, in acquiring a knowledge of his business.

Art. V. — American Institute of Instruction.

Fourth Annual Meeting.

The fourth annual meeting of the American Institute of Instruction was opened in the Hall of the Representatives, on Thursday, the 22d of August last, and terminated on Tuesday, the 28th, too late for any notice in our last number. The audience was much larger than was assembled the last year; a considerable number of new members joined the Institute; and the interest in the exercises

appeared to be sustained till the last. Indeed, the attendance on the last two days, appeared to be greater than during the preceding week.

This session was opened with prayer by the Rev. Dr Sharp. The introductory discourse, delivered by the Hon. William Sullivan, has already been published. Assuming intelligence and happiness to be the great ends of the institution, Mr Sullivan points out in his customary practical style, in what manner an American youth should be educated in order to attain these objects. He urges this, that he may be enabled to make a proper use of that boasted freedom which is his birth-right, but which, after all, is nothing but the power to act, and which will be the source of happiness or misery, according to the manner in which it is employed. We should rejoice to see some of the maxims of this discourse impressed upon the mind of every teacher, that he may be made to feel it a 'part of the course of education to teach *how to live*, and *for what to live*.' We think, however, that in presenting these objects, there was too little reference to our future destination, for an audience who believe in the immortality of the soul.*

The Introductory lecture was followed in the afternoon by a lecture from Mr Hall, principal of the Teachers' Seminary, at Andover, on the 'Education and Qualifications of Teachers,' in which this subject was briefly presented, with great simplicity and force, but with less detail than we could have desired, in consequence of the ill health of the lecturer.

This lecture was succeeded by a discussion on the question, 'Whether the Acquisition of Knowledge, or the Development of the Faculties, should be the principal object of education.' It was admitted that both should be kept in view. It was allowed that the acquisition of knowledge was indispensable, to a certain extent, in preparing for active life; and indeed, that this was the only mode of developing the faculties of the mind. But the question still returned, which object should be *chiefly* kept in view in education. It was maintained, and we believe without contradiction, that after providing for the indispensable branches of instruction, the extent and manner of study should be such as would *best cultivate and strengthen the mind itself*, rather than that which would produce the

* We regret that Mr Sullivan should, in some passages, think proper to introduce controverted points of theology. The Institute was formed and chartered on the principle of excluding all religious discussions, while its members have uniformly recognised the truth of Christianity, and the value of the Bible. We recollect that the first attempt to introduce sectarian views, was met by decided and open opposition, from all parties, and we had hoped it would be forever excluded. But within the last two years, views have been introduced, in several instances, in written discourses, and are sent forth with the authorized publications of the Institute, without remark or reply. We would ask, whether it is not due to the varied opinions of the members of the Institute on religious subjects, to avoid everything of this kind, and especially everything which, by its publication, may seem to commit the association in the view of the public; and we hope the lecturers of another year will be particularly requested to avoid all remarks of this kind. If they are repeated, they must inevitably provoke replies, and convert the Institute into an arena of theological controversy.

greatest accumulation of knowledge. It was inferred that the best methods of instruction, are not those which are easiest and most rapid; but those which call into exercise all the faculties of the mind, and thus prepare the pupil for future acquisitions, instead of merely supplying him with an immediate stock of knowledge.

The exercises of the Institute, on Friday, were commenced by a lecture from Mr Withington, of Newburyport, on 'Emulation, as a motive to Exertion in Schools.' We have only room to say, that there was much originality and acuteness in the exhibition of principles, although we cannot agree with the lecturer in the manner of applying them.

The lecture of Mr Perry of Bradford, (Mass.) on 'Primary Education,' which followed this, was peculiarly distinguished for its good sense, and its practical character. Among the numerous details, we can only refer to the excellent remarks on the importance of printing children's books in such a manner as not to try the eyes; on the danger of rendering the methods of study so easy as to exclude all exercise of mind; and on the absurdity of that system of schools which attempts to be wiser than Divine Providence, and separates children into schools of different sexes.

At half past three, a lecture was given by Prof. Alpheus Packard, of Bowdoin College, Maine, on 'the best method of teaching the Ancient Languages.'

At the close of this lecture a discussion was held on the 'Importance of Phrenology to a Teacher.' Assuming the truth of phrenology, it was maintained by the friends of this science, that in presenting the only true analysis of the mind itself, and in enabling us to discover its character by external signs, it was invaluable to those who were concerned in the education of the young. Inquiries were soon made, however, which involved the question of its truth, and it was thought expedient to defer the discussion until the next week, in order that some one might be present, who was prepared to offer objections against it.

Two of the lecturers expected on Saturday, Bishop Hopkins, of Vermont, and Dr Flint, of Boston, were prevented by ill health from fulfilling their appointments. The exercises of the day were commenced by a lecture of Dr Reynolds, on 'the Importance of a Knowledge of Human Physiology to Parents and Teachers,' in which the principles advanced were precisely in accordance with those of the essay on this subject in the last number of the 'Annals,' then issuing from the press; and the most striking and alarming proofs were given of the evils in our present system of education, arising from ignorance or neglect of this subject.

As no regular exercise of the Institute was appointed for the remainder of the morning, a committee of the 'American School Agents' Society,' were invited by a vote of the Institute, to present some of the facts they had collected respecting the state of education in our country. They agreed, as was originally proposed, to present some account of their plans and efforts in their annual report, for the information of the members of the Institute, in the following reply to the invitation.

'S. R. Hall, and William C. Woodbridge, on behalf of the Committee of the American School Agents' Society, accept with pleasure the invitation of the American Institute of Instruction, received from the Secretary, and will avail themselves of the opportunity, to present their objects in an Address and Report, to the members of the Institute, at half past 11 o'clock to-morrow.

'Pursuing a course and aiming at objects, essentially different, *in form*, from those of the Institute, and yet coinciding in the *great end* of improving the state of schools in our country, the Society cordially invite the members of the Institute, who are disposed, to unite with them in completing and executing its plans; while *they* hope to excite increased interest* in the meetings of the Institute, and of every other association of this kind.'

Boston, Aug. 23, 1333.

In accordance with this engagement, statements which had been made at the annual meeting of the Society, concerning the want of education among a large portion of our population, and the *need* of effort, since published in the last number of the 'Annals,' were first presented to the Institute. This was followed by the report of the Society, containing an account of its objects, and a part of the information collected during the past year. In consequence of the unexpected and unavoidable absence of the member of the committee, on whom the preparation of the report devolved, it became necessary that this part of the report should be supplied by the verbal statements of the agents; and as these were omitted in order to avoid occupying too much of the time of the Institute, much of its interest was lost. Abstracts of these statements, which have since been prepared, may be found in a subsequent article of our present number.

In the afternoon, Mr William Mulkey, of Alabama, exhibited his system of teaching Orthoepy, as described in the Annals, Vol. II. This exercise was succeeded by a discussion of the question, 'In what Manner the Evils of too long Confinement in School could be prevented.' Thorough ventilation, frequent periods of recess, and such arrangement of desks and seats as would render the position of the pupil most easy and salutary, were stated as among the best means of preventing evils which are often serious and permanent, and which were so fully exhibited in the lecture of Dr Reynolds. We wish this subject could be brought home to every parent and teacher in our land.

The exercises of Monday were commenced with an account of the Carstairian system of writing, with illustrations on the black board, by Mr Worster of Boston. A lecture was then given by Mr George W. Greene of Providence, R. I., on the 'System of Instruction, adopted by Jacotot,' which was to some extent described in the first volume of this work. Its peculiarities and advantages were presented in a striking manner from the experience of the lecturer himself, and we hope that public attention may in this way be drawn

* Among parents and teachers.

to a method, whose severity and thoroughness, is indeed at war with the present systems of instruction, but which furnishes the power of *self-education*, to a degree which is known in no other system. At half past eleven, Prof. B. Hale, of Dartmouth College, Hanover, N. H. gave a lecture on 'the best Mode of Teaching Natural Philosophy.'

In the afternoon, a lecture was delivered by H. R. Cleaveland of Boston, on the 'Importance of a Knowledge of Ancient Art, to those engaged in the higher Departments of Classical Instruction.' This was followed by a brief discussion on the 'Expediency of Bodily Punishment in Schools.' It was generally admitted, that while it could not be entirely abandoned with safety, it should be resorted to as seldom as possible; and that in a well-conducted school, it would rarely be necessary. This soon gave place to a discussion, proposed edweek previous, on the 'Truth of Phrenology,' by Dr Barber as the advocate, and Dr Bradford, the opponent of this science. It was maintained with much spirit, and finally adjourned until Tuesday evening.

On Tuesday morning, the question on the expediency of corporal punishment in schools was again discussed for a short time; and at 10 o'clock a lecture was delivered by W. C. Woodbridge, on the 'Best Modes of teaching Geography,' comprising a simple exhibition of the principles which he has endeavored to introduce into practice on this subject, and the reasons which have led to their adoption.

This was followed by an excellent lecture, by A. A. Baker, of Andover, on 'Mental Philosophy applied to Instruction,' in which the lecturer exhibited very forcibly the importance of a knowledge of the human mind to those, whose business it was to form and cultivate it. A lecture was delivered in the afternoon, on 'The Mode of teaching Elocution,' by Dr Barber, whose system and success are generally known. The discussion on 'The Truth of Phrenology,' was then renewed by the same gentlemen who conducted it on Monday. The whole discussion excited great interest, and we doubt not will lead many to that thorough examination which this subject demands, both from its friends and its enemies. It was evident, however, that a science whose claims depend entirely upon observation and induction, could not be explained or established in such a discussion; and that it was equally impracticable to present or consider, in a proper manner, the objections against it.

The exercises of the Institute were closed by a vote of thanks to the Legislature for their liberality in granting the use of their hall, and by a resolution expressing the interests of its members in the proceedings of this meeting, and their continued confidence in the usefulness of the institution; in which we believe every one cordially concurred.

The results of this session of the Institute have disappointed the fears of its friends, and the predictions of the few who have appeared to be its opposers. It is now so well known, and the pleasure and mutual instruction derived from it have been felt by so many, that while its plans and meetings are still susceptible of improvement, it

is gaining public confidence, and it is more easy to obtain the aid of lecturers and contributors. It is to be regretted that the usefulness of the lectures has been much diminished, by the limited sale of the volumes which have been published. This has been owing in part to the fact, that the publication was delayed, in consequence of the late period at which the manuscripts were furnished, until the occasion was forgotten, and the interest materially diminished. During the last year, they were circulated more widely than ever before, through the medium of this work The arrangement was made in part for this purpose, and in part to secure such economy to the publisher in printing from the same types, as to obtain a number of copies of each lecture for the authors, which could not otherwise have been furnished. We understand that not more than two hundred copies of any of the volumes have been sold, and we are inclined to attribute it in part to the expensive style of publication, and to the theoretical and discursive style of too many of the lectures. The practical and highly interesting character of most of the lectures of this year will, we hope, obviate to a great extent, the last objection; and we trust that measures which have been taken for prompt publication, will secure their appearance, before the public interest has entirely subsided. We are happy to find the funds of the Institute are in a flourishing state; and we hope that a considerable portion of them will be distributed during the ensuing year, either for premiums or some other object of importance, which shall encourage increased contributions from the friends of the cause.

The Institute is provided with a convenient room for the use of its members in a central situation,* which is furnished with the best periodicals, a collection of our principal school books, and some valuable works on Education. It is intended as a resort for teachers, and others interested in education.†

From the catalogue of members appended to the constitution, it appears that the whole number who have joined the Institute is about 400, of whom four are life members, and four have withdrawn. Thirty of these joined the Institute the present year. The occupation of each person is stated; and from this it appears that 270 of the whole number are teachers; 40 uncertain; 25 clergymen; 16 merchants; 12 booksellers; 9 physicians; 8 students; 6 attorneys; 4 editors; 3 printers; 2 mechanics; and 2 farmers. Three hundred of the whole number are from Massachusetts, and 128 of these from Boston; 18 from New York, 17 from New Hampshire, 14 from Maine, 11 from Rhode Island, 9 from Pennsylvania, 6 from Connecticut, 4 from Vermont, 3 from South Carolina, 2 from Virginia, and one each from Maryland, Ohio, and Illinois. The residence of a few is unknown.

* Corner of School Street and Washington Street, Boston.—Entrance on School Street.

† We hope it will soon be furnished with a book for recording the wants of schools, and the names or reference of teachers desiring employment, which would often contribute materially to the convenience of both.

The following is a list of the officers of the American Institute, for the ensuing year.

President — William B. Calhoun, Springfield.

Vice Presidents — William Sullivan, Boston; John Adams, Andover; Thomas H. Gallaudet, Hartford, Conn.; Andrew Yates, Chitenango, N. Y.; Roberts Vaux, Philadelphia; William C. Fowler, Middlebury, Vt.; Timothy Flint, N. Y.; Benjamin Abbott, Exeter, N. H.; John Pierpont, Francis C. Gray, George Ticknor, Boston; Asa Rand, Lowell; James G. Carter, Lancaster; Walter R. Johnson, Philadelphia; Benjamin D. Emerson, Roxbury; Elipha White, John's Island, S. C.; G. B. Emerson, Boston.

Recording Secretary — Alfred W. Pike, Boston.

Corresponding Secretaries — Solomon P. Miles, William C. Woodbridge, Boston.

Treasurer — Richard B. Carter, Boston.

Curators — Cornelius Walker, Peter Mackintosh, jr, Thomas P. Ryder, Boston.

Censors — Thomas Sherwin, Jacob Abbott, Boston; C. C. Felton, Cambridge.

Counsellors — William J. Adams, N. Y.; William Russell, Germantown; William Forrest, N. Y.; John Kingsbury, Providence, R. I.; Gideon F. Thayer, Abraham Andrews, Boston; Alfred Greenleaf, Salem; Benjamin Greenleaf, Bradford; Josiah Fairbank, Charlestown; R. G. Parker, Boston; William H. Spear, Roxbury; William H. Brooks, Salem.

A vote of thanks was passed to the late President and Secretary, who had resigned their offices. The Directors also passed a vote, expressing their sympathy with the family of the late Rev. Joseph Emerson, one of the Directors of the Society.

Art. VI. — Report of the Directors of the American School Agents' Society.

Presented at the first Annual Meeting of the Society, at Andover, (Mass.) August 5, 1833.

In presenting their First Annual Report, the Board of Directors would observe, that the past year has been mostly employed in arrangements preparatory to the extensive prosecution of plans, to the accomplishment of which they look forward as the result of future operations. They have, however, taken some important steps toward promoting the objects of the Association.

During the year they have distributed nearly one thousand copies of a printed circular, containing a brief statement of the objects the society has in view, and the means by which these are to be attained. The principal means proposed were, the employment of circuit teachers and of agents, who should examine and endeavor to improve the state of our schools.

Under the supervision of the Board a successful experiment has been made, testing the practicability and usefulness of Circuit Schools. Six of these schools were opened in four different towns in Massachusetts, during the last autumn. These were kept up for different terms of time, from three to nine months. Instruction was given in all the branches of study usually taught in our common schools, and in some which are found only in high schools and academies. The scholars were of both sexes, and from six to fifty years of age. A high degree of interest in their studies was excited, and in most instances, this continued undiminished to the last. The lessons assigned were carefully studied during the week, and the recitations were distinguished for accuracy and promptitude. The progress in study was *proportionably* greater, than in the continuous day schools. On the whole, in view of the results of this experiment, the Directors contemplate with much hope, the extensive introduction of the system into the sparsely settled and destitute portions of our country, to which it was originally supposed to be peculiarly adapted.

Circumstances having rendered it inexpedient, in the opinion of the Directors, to appoint a General Agent during the past year, they have endeavored to supply the deficiency thus occasioned, by employing several gentlemen as temporary agents, in the prosecution of the Society's plans. These agents have visited about one hundred and fifty towns, in the states of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut and New York. Following their instructions, they have examined schools, addressed assemblies of parents and teachers, established Lyceums, called county conventions, and formed associations of teachers. Wherever they have been, the more intelligent portion of the community have given them a cordial welcome. Large bodies of men, the most influential in society, have passed resolutions in favor of our Association. One State society has been formed, having for its basis the principles of our constitution. Many of the most distinguished friends of education in the country have tendered their personal influence and their purses, to assist us in our enterprise.

But many, even of this class, are making only feeble efforts to elevate the character of our schools; for the apathy which prevails in the mass of the community operates as a discouragement to the labors of the few who are really desirous of a better public sentiment, and more energetic measures. The evils which our agents discovered by a personal examination of the districts not connected with the villages, (which, it must be remembered, embrace a great ma-

jority of all the schools in New England,) are so serious, both in respect of their number and their magnitude, as to awaken apprehension in all who love the interests of learning, and the purity and happiness of the rising generation. The incompetency of teachers, both as it regards an adequate knowledge of the branches which they teach, and of the art of communicating instruction; the indifference of parents to the prosperity of their schools; the mistaken economy exhibited in the location, construction, and furniture of school houses; the deficiency of suitable books, and the almost total absence of apparatus for illustrating the various subjects of study, cannot be contemplated without alarm. Many facts might be submitted, tending to establish and illustrate each of these points, but they must be reserved for another occasion.

In concluding this very brief statement, the Board of Directors find abundant reason for gratitude to divine Providence, and ample encouragement in the success of the labors they have performed, in the favor of the public press, in the approbation of an enlightened public sentiment, and in the general conviction that the Society is peculiarly adapted to the exigencies of the times. They find also powerful motives to more extended and more vigorous efforts, in behalf of the great interests which the Society is designed to promote. From the facts which are developed in the reports of the Society's agents, it is apparent, that even our own New England is still slumbering over the responsibilities which should wake her to put forth all her energies. Her teachers are yet to learn, in most instances, the arts of instruction, and government, and *education;* persons entrusted with the selection and employment of instructors, are yet to practise a severe fidelity to their trust; the social and moral natures of the children are yet to receive a due attention; the apathy and indifference of parents and guardians must be broken up. To arouse the christian and the patriot, to excite the sympathy and concern of the parent, to waken the dormant energies of a whole community, even in this *native* land of free schools, is a task of no ordinary difficulty. And then we are to remember that the wide wastes of the west are still before us; and if it should ever find the field of its labors at home too narrow, or its resources too extensive, there is scarcely a spot upon the globe, beyond the limits of a few favored countries, which does not invite its operations, and which would not be fertilized and blessed by the influence of improved means of education, the only sure basis of liberty, and morals, and religion.

The Directors would conclude their Report in the language of their circular.

'Confiding in the merits of their cause, and the obvious and important relations it bears to every other enterprise undertaken for the sake of human improvement and happiness, they confidently make their appeal to an enlightened and christian public for their countenance and support. They contemplate no collision with any other benevolent institution of the day. The field which they pur-

pose to enter is as yet unoccupied. This Society now comes forward not as the rival, but as the sister and co-worker of the now existing societies. Her efforts, hitherto, have been comparatively but few, and those too, sustained only by the feebleness of youth, and under the embarrassment of that frigid and paralyzing reception with which the yet unaccredited purposes of benevolence are wont to be received. But though she is young and feeble, she remembers that her elder sisters were once young like herself, and she believes that that spirit of philanthropy and Christian beneficence, which is the common parent of both them and her, will foster and sustain her.'

On behalf of the Directors.

SAMUEL FARRAR, *President.*

MILO P. JEWETT, *Secretary.*

After the reading of the Report, the following resolutions were unanimously adopted. On motion of Mr Woodbridge, seconded by Mr Newton, of Vermont,

Resolved, — 1, That in view of the facts presented to this meeting from the reports of the agents of this society, and from other sources, it is evident, that the state of schools, even in the most favored portions of our country, is far below the standard which is requisite for the institutions of a free people.

On motion of the Rev. Mr Lindsley of Boston, seconded by the Rev. Mr Shipherd of Ohio,

Resolved, — 2, That it is an imperious duty devolving upon the citizens of the United States, as patriots and christians, to provide schools for the multitude of children who are destitute of instruction, especially at the south and west.

On motion of Mr Barton of the Teachers' Seminary, seconded by Mr Beeman,

Resolved, — 3, That the experience of the last year furnishes abundant evidence, that the employment of agents to ascertain the wants of the community, to excite interest on the subject of education, and to diffuse a knowledge of the best methods of instruction, is of the highest importance to the interests of our schools.

On motion of Mr Taylor of New York,

Resolved, — 4, That the society find abundant evidence that the community have begun to feel the importance of this subject, and are prepared to encourage and sustain measures of this kind; and that in view of the success which has thus far attended their efforts, they have great occasion for gratitude to God, and encouragement to go forward with increased energy.

On motion of Mr Hall of the Teachers' Seminary, seconded by Prof. Emerson,

Resolved, — 5, That in order to secure more prompt and extended effort, it is expedient that the seat of this society's operations be transferred to Boston, and that a committee be appointed to call a meeting on the 23d of August to present the subject for their consideration, and that the Report now made be accepted and referred to them, to be enlarged and presented at that meeting.

On motion of Mr Barton,

Resolved, — 6, That as this Society has never been concerned in the circulation or recommendation of school books, and as its objects are entirely unconnect-

ed with any private interests, the agents should be enjoined to abstain from acting as the agents of any publishers or authors of books, or apparatus for the use of schools.

Supplementary Report of the Committee of the Directors.

The Committee appointed to extend the report of the society have deemed it advisable, in preparing it for publication, to confine themselves chiefly to the statement of the facts collected by the society. They regret that the absence or illness of some of the agents, and the peculiar circumstances of others, now absorbed in other duties, have prevented the detailed account which they could have desired; but they find enough to excite much anxiety concerning our schools, to show the necessity of exploring and endeavoring to improve them, and at the same time to encourage the society in their peculiar plans and efforts for this object.

The agents have been accustomed to visit the schools of each town through which they passed, to call upon the most influential individuals, and at a suitable period, to assemble the inhabitants at a public lecture. In this lecture, they generally gave some account of the objects of the society, and in conformity with their instructions, presented some of the great principles of education and the most important improvements in organizing and conducting schools, pointed out some of the defects which they found most prevalent, and suggested some mode of remedying them. They also endeavored, as often as possible, to promote the formation of conventions and associations of teachers and the friends of education, for the benefit of schools, and for mutual improvement.

The season of the year was unfavorable, on account of the pressure of agricultural labor, and the state of the weather; but still, large assemblies were often collected, and frequently a church was filled. In most instances, as has already been stated, they met with cordial support from teachers and intelligent men. In many instances, the circumstances which have been stated, and the recent demands for other objects of benevolence, rendered it inexpedient, in the view of the agents, to solicit pecuniary aid for the society; but where this was done, it was usually given liberally, and the agents were generally urged to repeat their visit.

But there is more substantial evidence of the utility of *this mode* of promoting improvements in education, as in the following statement of one of the agents.

'In one town, where they had had their attention called to the subject about two years ago, by a gentleman who gave a lecture on the evils in our common schools, an entire revolution had been produced. I was informed three years ago, that they had three times as many teachers in that town as could find employment, who would 'keep' for eight or ten dollars per month; but now there was such a change in public opinion, with regard to the qualifications of teachers, that there were not one half enough to supply the town, *who were considered qualified.* They stated, further, that, had not their attention been called to the subject in this manner, they might have continued to the present time as they were before.

'In another town, where they had their attention awakened in regard to their schools at about the same time, similar effects were witnessed. It was a place notorious for dissipation, and I had long known it as such. Here they had formed a Lyceum. The old and the young were interested in it; and I found them actually engaged in making apparatus, with which to survey the mountains which had so long witnessed their scenes of folly.'

The same agent gives the following interesting account of efforts at improvement, which will show that there is a preparation for receiving such agents as the society employs.

'Before I arrived, a number of gentlemen had met and organized a society for the purpose of investigating the state of the schools, and giving lectures on various topics connected with the subject of teaching. About twenty topics were added to their list while I was there. Among those who had pledged themselves to give lectures were the two clergymen, the preceptors of the two academies, the Hon. Mr ———, member of Congress, and the physicians of the place. I was solicited to call a county convention in ——— county. The specific object was to organize a county society, to enlist gentlemen in other towns to give lectures, and to institute a course of circuit lecturing through the county. This we supposed was feasible. We supposed the lectures which the gentlemen were to give, would be as valuable in other towns as there; and that each town in the county might thus be united, for *mutual instruction*. The convention was called, but a long and severe storm prevented people from assembling. I have since learned, that in this place they are prosecuting the work of reform with ardor, and that they lecture alternately at every school district in the town. The general feeling through the whole country is, that an effort must be made to elevate the character of the common schools.

'In some parts of ——— county, the same state of feeling existed. In others there was an apathy on the whole subject.'

Another agent succeeded in collecting a county convention of teachers and friends of education, of which he gives the following brief sketch.

'At this convention there were present between seventyfive and a hundred teachers, besides clergymen, lawyers, &c, from almost all parts of the county. We met and organized on Monday, 3d of June, and continued our session until Wednesday evening, 6th. The result of this convention, I have every reason to believe, was successful and salutary. A committee was appointed, of which a member of the legislature was chairman, to call a convention in the fall, and also to prepare a constitution for a permanent county association, for the promotion of common education.'

From the public papers as well as from the report of the agent for the state of New York, it appears, that great interest was excited in that state. The mayor of the city of New York, in connexion with other leading men, called a meeting, which was very fully attended. The assembly was addressed by several gentlemen of eminence, who offered resolutions, unanimously adopted, that 'they approve the objects of this society, and recommend it to the patronage of every friend of his country.' In Albany, a large and respectable committee was appointed, to form a state society for improving common schools. In several towns and counties in the interior of the state, conventions of teachers were assembled, and permanent associations formed, for the promotion of education.

But while such encouragement is presented to sustain the society in its future labors, painful evidence of their necessity has been gen-

erally discovered. The agents uniformly found, that some towns and districts were provided with well conducted and valuable schools, and well qualified teachers. They had also the pleasure of meeting generally with some individuals in every town, ready to engage in efforts for improvement, and to give cordial reception to all who should bring them valuable information. At the same time, they found that the light and improvements diffused through one town or district were, in many cases, unknown in another, only a few miles distant; and that the efforts and advances made in our large towns, are almost unknown beyond their immediate neighborhood. Their observations fully prove the statements so often made, that there are great and serious defects in our schools; and confirm the Directors in their opinion of the necessity of a society like the present.

It will be useful to commence a brief view of their reports with an account of one state in New England, derived from the report of a convention on this subject. In the report of the Society for the Improvement of Common Schools in the state of Connecticut, we find the following facts, which will serve as an introduction to others which the Directors are called upon to state.

The low wages and consequent change of teachers are thus mentioned as among the radical evils:

The average compensation, in addition to board, is about $11 a month for male teachers, and a dollar a week for females. Many females, however, of considerable experience, teach at 75 cents a week; and some whose experience is less, at 62 1-2, or even 50. Many board themselves and teach for one dollar; as it is very generally supposed that a female instructor can earn enough at some other employment, during the intervals between school hours, to pay for her board. It seems scarcely understood by parents, or even by some teachers, that duty requires them to devote any greater part of their time to their school, than the *six hours* usually allotted for this purpose.

One of the greatest evils which exists in connection with the common schools of Connecticut, is a *perpetual change of teachers*. It is, indeed, the general belief in the country towns, so far as we can learn, that *it is better for the school*, to exchange often. We are inclined to think this opinion, has, till recently, been extending in that State; for 30 years ago, it was more common for an instructor to be employed two successive seasons in the same school than now.

The number of pupils in each school is thus described:

The whole number of pupils who attend the winter schools, is upon the average, about 40 to each school; the number in attendance in summer is much less. In one society, containing 499 pupils, between 4 and 16 years of age, only 200 were in attendance during the summer. However great the number of pupils—and there are sometimes 80 or 100, — only one teacher is allowed. There are a few exceptions in some of the larger towns, where a female assistant has been employed, especially during the winter. The great benefits which have resulted from this arrangement, and even its *economy*, seem however to have attracted but little attention. — There are a few children in the State, who receive no instruction at all; but their number is by no means considerable.

The size of school houses is generally much too small. We often find 50 or 60 pupils crowded into a room, twenty feet square, or twenty by eighteen feet; of which number, 30 write, 20 study arithmetic, and a few, grammar and geography; and within these narrow dimensions, all the evolutions of the school, and the arrangement and disbanding of classes, are to be performed, and room found for that display of rules, and inkstands, and slates, and pencils, and maps, which

those studies commonly involve. Added to all this, the instructor's table or desk, and a stove, when a fireplace is not used, are all comprehended in the same space; and to crown the whole, the outer clothes, hats, &c, of half a hundred pupils, with their baskets of food and drink, are sometimes deposited in various parts of the school room. How is it possible to proceed with the appropriate exercises of the school, encaged in this manner?

Again, school houses are generally very poorly lighted. We have seen many school rooms occupied by 40 to 60 pupils, lighted by only 60 to 72 panes of glass, the dimensions of which were only 6 by 8 inches. The amount in superficial feet is thus less than two thirds as great as the amount of glass in *two windows* of a chamber. The windows are also placed too low in the walls of the building, as they are thus exposed to frequent injury, and permit the pupils to be diverted from their studies by every little movement which takes place near the school house.

The construction and situation of school-houses were found materially defective.

Greater attention ought also to be paid to the location and external arrangement of school houses. They are usually placed as near as possible to the centre of the district. Stagnant marshes and ponds, or what is scarcely less injurious, sandbanks, in their immediate vicinity are by no means uncommon. Some are even placed in close contact with pounds and prisons, whose moral influence on little children, cannot but be unfavorable. There is another evil, whose *immediate* results are of still greater magnitude. Standing as a majority of school-houses do, contiguous to dwelling houses, and barns, and enclosures, and fruit trees, and gardens, serious difficulties are apt to arise between the scholars and the owners. Fences are apt to be thrown down, herds or flocks frightened, fruits purloined, &c. In seeking to avoid or prevent these and other kindred sources of evil, it is not necessary to go to the other extreme, and locate our school-houses in a wilderness or desert. But we cannot avoid insisting on the indispensable necessity of selecting airy, shady, healthy situations; and avoiding villages and public roads, which expose to noise and dust, as well as to scenes of immoral and sometimes indecent example, whether in the centre of the district or not.

A few districts in the State are, even now, destitute of any school-houses at all. In one of the oldest, if not one of the wealthiest towns, there were in 1830, several instances of the kind. One of the schools occupied a chamber in a dwelling house; another a very small shoe-maker's shop, badly constructed, and poorly lighted.

From a document prepared by a member of the convention to which this report was made, it appears, that while some schools are conducted in an excellent manner and on rational principles, a large proportion of the methods of instruction are mechanical. The agent of the society for Connecticut confirms the account given in these views of the condition of schools in that state; and observes, that so far as he could observe, 'the most serious obstacle to the success and utility of schools is found in the mechanical methods of teaching.' He adds the following general statement concerning the towns which he visited.

The district schools in this state receive very little attention compared with private schools and academies. Many parents in the villages who are most interested in the education of their children, and who are well acquainted with the real character of the district schools, are unwilling to send their children, in consequence of the bad habits they acquire in them. Instead, however, of making efforts to improve them, they combine in order to establish a select school, and the district school thus passes into the hands of those who feel little interest in it, except to procure and expend the money furnished by the public treasury. This is usually done by employing the cheapest teacher, for the longest time

possible. It is in this way that the fund, instead of helping to improve the schools, encourages many of the towns in neglecting all exertion. In consequence of the small compensation which is offered to teachers, those who are qualified will not generally engage in the employment; and this will doubtless be the case, and schools will remain in a low state, so long as the *cheapest teachers* are preferred.

The schools are not often visited either to discover or remedy defects, except in a formal manner, twice in the season, to comply with the letter of the law which absolutely requires this. Parents even, seldom visit the schools in which their children are taught.

This agent observes in another part of his report that most of the defects in the schools of this state were traced by intelligent men with whom he conversed, first to the paralyzing influence of the school fund. Second, to the want of qualified teachers. In reference to the mode of engaging teachers, and the influence of the fund, the report of the society already alluded to, thus confirms the views of the agents.

Nothing more strikingly evinces the paralyzing effect of a large fund, *as it has been hitherto applied*, than the indifference which prevails, almost universally, in regard to setting up schools. When the district committee warn a meeting, only a small proportion of those concerned can, in ordinary cases, be induced to attend; and within a few years, it has often happened that a sufficient number could not be collected to transact business in a proper and legal manner. When, however, the people of a district are collected, their inquiries, so far as regards a teacher, are not generally 'Is he qualified?'—but 'What are his terms?' and 'Can he get a certificate?' It is usually understood that the Committee, in selecting the candidate, will keep principally in view, the amount of money likely to be received from the State treasury, and the Society fund (when one exists); and employ an instructor for such a length of time, and on such terms, as will just absorb that sum and no more. Indeed they are often directed to this effect, by a vote of the meeting. If a small sum is to be raised by taxation, to complete the payment of the expenses at the close of the term, it is usually paid with far greater reluctance than the whole expenses were paid, before the year 1795, when no fund existed. It is also a well known fact, that before that period, it was customary to continue the schools nearly as great a proportion of the year as at present; and the interest which parents and the public at large manifested in their welfare, was incomparably greater. We once more beg to be understood, as speaking *generally*; for there are, in almost every part of the State many honorable exceptions to the truth of these remarks.

In reference to other New England States, concerning which no public documents exist, it is deemed expedient to state the facts generally, rather to furnish evidence that there is need of examining and improving our schools, than to point out particular fields of operation, or the defects of particular places.

One agent states, that in the region he visited, the people had begun to be sensible of their wants, but that 'the state of schools was lamentably low, the books antiquated, and the teachers very deficient in qualifications for the office.' The more respectable part of the community say, that they cannot send their children to the common schools in consequence of the low state of instruction and of morals; and they establish private schools. Teachers simply follow the course of questions in the book, continually impeded by the want of a thorough knowledge of the subjects. School committees neglect their duty. No more striking proof can be found of the need of exploring our country, than that the following occurrence should take place in a village in New England.

'In one town, not far from the capital of the state, the people objected to hearing a lecture, declaring that they did not want these new ways—that they would not have their children taught that the world turns round! This is only one instance among others of such prejudice.'

A similar case of ignorance in a respectable inhabitant of a country village, occurred to a gentleman known to a member of the society, and he was seriously charged with attacking the authority of the bible, in teaching that the sun does not move!

An agent in another state observes, that it is rare for parents to visit schools, and that committees are very careless in examining teachers. The committee by whom he was examined, on taking charge of a common school, simply asked whether he had been educated at college; and without a single inquiry as to his knowledge or his ability to teach, certified that he was qualified for an instructor. The appointment of teachers is often a question of party; and one instance came to his knowledge in which a vote was purchased for this office, by a glass of ardent spirits. As might be expected, teachers were often employed, when known to be intemperate. False economy is practised, by hiring, almost universally, the cheapest teacher, whatever other qualification he may have. Children were imperfectly furnished with books, and he had often known a family of four and even six children, with only two books for all. In consequence of the long vacations, and imperfect instruction, it is a common fact, that children forget nearly all they have learned from one year to another. Instruction in reading is generally confined to mere pronouncing, without any explanation of the meaning of the language; and the whole course of instruction in arithmetic, and other branches, is chiefly mechanical, without explanation or illustration.

The following general account of the schools in the state is given by the same agent.

'The character of the common schools in the state is not at all uniform. The evils and defects are multiform and varied, through the wide extent of country over which they are scattered; often depending on the sectional prejudices and peculiar education and character of the people. In the larger towns and villages, the schools are in a flourishing condition, enjoying the common advantages and privileges of schools of the more elevated and improved kind. As you recede from the influence of the larger towns, or more populous sections of the country, the schools become proportionally of a poorer character. There you will find *bad* school-houses, *worse* books, and *worst* instructors—*little* interest in school committees, *less* in parents, and *least* in pupils. I could name school committees actually unable to read, or write intelligibly, to say nothing of grammar, arithmetic, etc. etc. I know of nothing more auspicious to the cause of education in that state than the institution of the American School Society. The people need light, knowledge, information in the *detail* and practice, and also in the theory of school keeping; and they are ready to engage in the work, and coöperate with the society in all judicious measures for the improvement and elevation of their common schools.'

Another agent in the same state gives the following information.

In the whole county of ———, there are no permanent schools, and but two, I believe, that are continued above half the year. In the academies above mentioned, all of which are in ——— county, excepting the first, the improved

modes of instruction are introduced. The general complaint among the friends of education was the difficulty of obtaining competent instructors.

Two obstacles to improvement in the system of common school education, were found to prevail extensively among two different classes of persons. The one, an indifference to the subject, which existed principally among those who had paid little attention to the subject, or those who were so deeply engaged in the pursuit of wealth as to think of little else. The other obstacle was a kind of despair, as to any hope of improving the system. This was found among those who had heretofore made isolated, and consequently ineffectual efforts, in behalf of the cause. It is hoped an interest was awakened on this subject in the minds of some gentlemen of the bar. Perhaps county conventions may be called in connection with the sessions of the courts.

An agent in another state gives the following general view of the state of schools in twenty towns which he visited.

'I generally found that the sums of money raised for the support of schools were far below what they ought to be, in the estimation of the most intelligent citizens. In not a few instances, were these sums far below those expended in the town, even in these temperate days, for ardent spirits. Hence, I found, that the schools continued but a small part of the year, and that they were seldom visited, while the examination of teachers generally extended no farther than to the requisite amount of acquired knowledge, and a fair moral character. It did not at all respect the act of communicating instruction in the best manner, nor the mode of managing and governing a school. While the teachers of some of the schools seemed to have availed themselves of all the modern improvements in the art of instructing and governing a school, many others seemed very contented to go on in what they called the *good old way*. Still, when the people came together for the express purpose of considering the condition of education in their own town, and in their county, I always found among them, many who felt an intense degree of interest on this subject; who not only felt, but were determined *to act*, to do all in their power to elevate the condition of education in their own town, and if possible, so to excite the public mind on the subject, as to prepare the way for the legislature to act more directly and powerfully in its support. Several of the Editors with whom I conversed, promised to make *school* education one of the leading subjects of discussion in their papers. I not unfrequently found young persons of talent and influence, of both sexes, who wished to qualify themselves for teaching. Some of them wished the qualifications to go out and teach in the destitute West. I regret to say, that many of these wanted pecuniary aid, but I regret still more, that it was not in my power to point these benevolent youth to some Education Society, or to some other kindred benevolent association, from which they might expect to derive assistance.'

The same agent remarks, that the state of discipline in the schools was often very low.

Another agent, who visited the schools of a single county in New England, gives the following sketch of their schools.

Their condition was various, not so much however in the different towns, as in different parts of the same town. A description therefore of a single town will give a correct view of the subject generally. In *one part of a town* in ——— county, I found and visited five schools. They were in general, very well organized and conducted. Books very good, except 'Perry's Spelling Book.' There was no apparatus, not even a black-board; and in fact, I found none in any of the schools, except one. An association of trustees was found in this place; and a systematic visitation of schools was practised by the members. Everything almost appeared pleasant, and in some respects, as it should be; and this I found to some extent in most of the towns that I visited.

But on the other hand, in *another part* of this town. I found a school without a school-house; that is, a permanent one. The teacher removed her school and lodging from house to house, through the district. Something like this I found in

almost every town. In one town, a certain class in a district took turns in teaching the school, or rather in getting the school money; and as a general thing, I found a great unwillingness to letting the public money go out of the district, for in that case, '*It was lost.*' In some places, they do not have a school more than twelve or fourteen weeks in the year. In one place, the present summer, the school continued but three and a half weeks; and what was peculiar in this case, the teacher came two hundred miles. She was well qualified, and taught to the satisfaction of all; but the school money failed, and the school stopped. In one town, I found a person on the *school committee* who was examined last year as a *teacher*, and found wanting. In many towns, I found that school committees do nothing — neither examine a teacher, nor visit a school. A teacher told me, who had taught most of the time for *sixteen years*, that she had never had a visitor in her school, not even a parent. These facts, it will be recollected, I put down as *extreme ones*, on the dark side of the picture. On the other side, I might mention the fact, that in many towns good school-houses are found, and good teachers sought for and obtained.—'We want a good teacher,' is their language, and 'we will pay him.' And again, the fact that some in almost every town are awake to their situation in this respect, acknowledge at once their deficiences, when they are pointed out, and commence improvement.'

[To be continued.]

Art. VII. — Arthur Lewis; or, The Schoolmaster.

[We insert the following account of the method of '*making a schoolmaster*,' because we know it to be substantially true, and because we fear it is but too just an exhibition of the practice prevalent in many of our prosperous villages.]

Chapter I.

'I don't see why Arthur can't keep the school this winter,' said Mr Davidson.

'Our Arthur keep school!' replied Mr Lewis; 'you 're joking.'

'Indeed I am not,' said Mr Davidson. 'Arthur's learning is good enough to keep school; and several of us have talked the matter over, and think we had better employ him.'

Mr L. scratched his head and hemmed once or twice, at the same time manifesting by his countenance no little surprise that Arthur should be thought of for a 'schoolmaster.' 'Why, as to Arthur's keeping school,' said he, 'I don't know. It is what I have never thought of. He is quite young yet. He is only eighteen, last August. I know he has always been reckoned a "forward" scholar, but I am not certain he would "*pass.*" They say, they are going to be pretty strict in examining masters, this year.'

'Arthur is young, it is true,' Mr Davidson replied; 'but he is as steady as some are at thirty; and it is my opinion that there would be no difficulty on that account. As to his getting a certificate, it appears to me there can be no mistake about that. You kept him at school very steadily in the winter, till he was thirteen years old. Then he has been to school to Mr Lucas and to Mr St John, one or two winters, has he not?'

'Oh, yes;' said Mr Lewis. 'He has been to Mr St John part of *two* winters, and to Mr Lucas about six weeks in the whole, from first to last. His advantages, I know, have been very good, but yet I don't know as he would *pass*. And another difficulty is, I *want* him this winter very much.

But I will talk the matter over with him, and see how he feels about it. What did you think of giving him a month? And how long would it be best to set up a school?'

'Why, we had not thought much about that yet,' said Mr D. 'The length of the school must depend a little, on how much we pay a month. We "*draw*," you know, about thirty dollars for the winter school. If a master could be hired for *seven dollars and a half*, we might of course have a school four months, if we board him; but I have thought that in case Arthur kept, he might board at home; and as he could help you, out of school hours enough to pay his board, perhaps he could afford to keep about as low, as if he "went round in the district."'

'Well, I don't know;' Mr L. replied. 'Arthur and I will think of it. He may be willing to engage.'

The truth is, that Mr L. was not a little flattered with the idea of Arthur's keeping school. But as he was the district committee man this year, what would be said if he put his own son into the school? 'Besides,' said he to himself, 'I am not quite certain Arthur's *government* is right for keeping school. I am afraid his learning, after all, is better than his government.'

He was more than half right in this, as we shall see in the sequel. Arthur was one of those who might be termed *memory* scholars. He had been flattered and praised and rewarded by his instructors so much, at his first going to school, that at *eight* years of age he could spell all the words in Webster's spelling book, and had already begun to write. One of his earliest teachers had wrought upon him greatly by calling him *Captain* Arthur. Till this period he had been to school three or four months in the winter, and four in the summer; but after eight years of age, he was kept at home in the summer to work. He attended the same school three months in the winter, however, till he was thirteen; but he made very little progress. He was already first in the neighborhood in spelling and writing, and he could read his verse or paragraph with as much *rapidity* as any scholar in the school; and as there was no longer any demand upon his emulation, what more had he to do? Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography were not permitted in school, so there was no opportunity for going forward in any of those branches. A very little arithmetic was sometimes taught in the evenings.

It is true that he had attended about six months, in the whole, at several private schools; but they were schools which were not very well conducted. All he did at them was to render himself a little more perfect in the branches he had already studied — spelling, reading, and writing —and to obtain a smattering of arithmetic and grammar.

Among the rest, however, there were one or two redeeming circumstances. Arthur had been fond of arithmetic from his earliest years. Many of his evenings had been spent at home, by the fireside, with his candle and slate, even when his companions were at their sports. Nor did he depend wholly on his *book*, though he usually had one by him. Sometimes he invented little questions himself, and solved them. His father, who was fond of 'reckoning in his head,' as it was called, used to afford him some aid. Another thing in his favor, was, that when he attended three months at Mr St John's private school, the number of pupils was so large, that a part of them — those who, it was supposed, could best take care of themselves — were assigned to another room; and here, as if by common consent, and because they found it mightily pleased Arthur, he was made a kind of monitor. This rendered his knowledge of arithme-

tic, much more practical, for arithmetic was the principal branch studied; but it engrossed his time and thoughts so much that he did very little else.

But Arthur was utterly ignorant of human nature. He had never been taught to study himself, or others. His knowledge was confined to a little book work; and as for *governing*, he was no more able to form the characters of the young, than a child. The fault, it must be acknowledged, was not so much his own, as that of his parents; especially his father. He was a man whose habits in this respect were very unfavorable. He was kind, and in some things judicious; but if an error was committed, he had not the resolution to correct it, unless his feelings rose to anger; then he would punish, and generally with severity. The mother would have done better, but for the father. What she could do by dint of mere kindness was, however, effected. But still the son had never learned obedience, nor been taught to govern himself. He had been constantly kept by his father in the belief, that he was somewhat inferior, in point of native talent and capacity, to others around him; and had never, therefore, acquired any respect for himself, or any confidence in his own ability. He has often told me that he always compared himself to Stephen Richards, a half idiot in the neighborhood; of which he thought his attachment to books furnished a strong evidence. For it ought to be remarked here, that he grew up with the impression, that those young men who attended colleges and seminaries of learning were generally the fools of their families; and were sent to college to put them, if possible, on a level with the rest of mankind, or because they were unfit for anything else.

But Arthur could *labor*. He had just unloaded the cart, turned out the oxen, put on his coat, and set down to his evening repast, when his father observed, 'Well, Arthur; what should you say to keeping school this winter?'

'*I* keep school, father! Pray why should you ask such a question as that?'

'Why,' said his father, 'Mr Davidson says that some of the district are desirous you should keep our school this winter. I told him I would talk with you about it; I did not know what you would think.'

Arthur was so confused at the proposition, that partly from surprise and partly from absence of mind, he had filled his pipes so fast with his bread and milk that he found some difficulty in swallowing. But he at length recovered the command of his throat and vocal organs, and answered; 'Why, really, father, I don't know *how* to keep school; and if I did, I should not like to keep in my own district, where I have always been to school. Half the children are my cousins, you know; and almost all of them have been my mates at play. I fear they never would mind me. But who is it, father, besides Mr D. that wants to have me take the school?'

'I don't know,' said his father, 'who it is; for I did not think to ask. Several of the neighbors, I believe.'

'I very much doubt,' said Arthur, 'whether I should *pass an examination*. But there are other things to be considered. I don't see how you could spare me. That timber must be got out for Mr T. How long do they want me to keep, and what will they give?'

Mr Lewis now related to his son, the conversation with Mr Davidson; and concluded with observing that after all it must be left chiefly with him to decide. 'You can do as you please,' said he. 'If you think you can keep the school, and at the same time work for me, except during the school hours, I do not know that I have any objection.'

'But, father, how would it appear for you to put your own son into the school?' said Arthur. 'If the rest wish it ever so much, it appears to me, it will be likely to be reported abroad, that it is all your doings.'

'Well; I am not anxious about it any way,' his father replied. 'I tell you, you can do as you please.'

Arthur did not sleep much that night — for two reasons. The first was, that in a state of mental absence he had loaded his stomach about twice as heavily as usual; and this, too, almost without mastication; and the powers of nature were too much disturbed to permit him to sleep. But the other and stronger reason was, that the thoughts of keeping school had engrossed his whole mind. He fancied himself at one time in his pedagogical chair, wielding his birchen sceptre with wonderful success; at another, his patience was put to a severe trial with Tim's awkwardness, in not distinguishing *b* from *d*; and at another, the villainous scholars were contriving to turn him out of the school house, and bar him out. Half waking, he called out aloud, in one instance, 'Rascals! I am lord of my own possessions yet, in spite of you.'

In truth, he had always secretly aspired to the chair of the pedagogue; but without daring hardly to lift his eyes so far. But now Dame Fortune had opened the door and bid him enter. Ought he to obey the call, or stay where he was, and avoid the risk? Risk, there certainly was, more or less. He could not tell how he might succeed.

In the mean time it was noised about that Arthur was talked of for a schoolmaster. They all thought he would pass; but what does he ask a month? was the question. This, nobody could tell; but it was generally believed he would keep at a very low rate. Some of them thought he was so young, he might be hired for seven dollars a month.

The children liked the idea very well; for if Master Arthur should keep, they said, they could do pretty much as they pleased. 'He is so good natured and pleasant,' said they, 'that he wont surely punish us very bad, if we behave a little out of the way.'

Mr Lewis concluded that it would not appear well for him to employ his own son; and as the son seemed inclined to listen to proposals, he told Mr Davidson that if he was willing to act as Committee man in his stead, and call a meeting, he would draw the public money for the district; for no one could draw their proportion of the fund but the Committee who had been legally appointed. Mr D. at length consented.

CHAPTER II.

'I wish, Arthur,' said Mr Davidson, 'you would just write a notice for a school meeting, for I don't know how.'

'Well, if you will tell me what to write;' said Arthur.

'Mr Lewis,' said Mr D., 'what is the proper way to write a notice?'

So Mr L. told him, and Arthur wrote, or rather *painted* it; for although, as I said before, he was regarded as the best writer in the neighborhood, having been *numbered* first in all the schools in town, yet *he* could write nothing but a kind of labored copy-hand; nor that, without *ruling*. As for Mr D. he could write his name, but that was about all. Mr Lewis had been employed in performing a little public business, and could write better than he could spell; and also had some knowledge of *forms*. Accordingly, among them all they succeeded in making out a notice, and it was placed upon the school-house door.

Arthur had occasion (or *made* occasion) to pass the school-house soon

afterward, and could not avoid looking at the notice to see how his writing appeared when placed in so conspicuous a position. He was, on the whole, gratified; but he could not avoid wishing he had not tried to write without ruling; for the lines 'ran up hill' so as to form rather too large an angle with the horizon.

Well; the time appointed came, and Mr Davidson and *two* other persons at length collected, and opened a school meeting! They were very sorry there was not a full attendance; especially when the weather was so fine; but as there were persons enough present to transact business in a legal manner, it was concluded to proceed.

The first question agitated was, whether they should have a school the ensuing winter. But this was soon decided in the affirmative, by the unanimous vote of all the four members present. Why should they *not* have a school? There was public money enough to hire a cheap master three or four months; they had children enough, and wanted them out of the way; they had always had a winter school; and there was no reason why so good a practice should not be continued.

'When shall the school commence?' was the second question. But this was settled as easily as the former; for custom, time immemorial, had fixed on the first Monday after Thanksgiving, which would usually be about the last of November.

'Who can we get to keep?' was the next question. Mr Morton observed that his wife's cousin, in Alton, would take a school, as he understood his wife to say the other day.

'Do you know his terms?' said Mr Lewis; for he was present quite as promptly and seasonably this evening as usual.

'Why no, I don't;' said Mr M. 'I believe he had about twelve dollars a month last winter, and board himself. But what he would ask and board in the district, I don't know. My wife will be over there to-morrow, and can find out, if the meeting should wish.'

The Moderator observed that it would be very desirable to fix on somebody that evening, if they could, to save the trouble of an adjourned meeting. 'Besides,' continued he, 'the gentleman you speak of appears to have taught school before. We have usually had quite as good success with a *new beginner* as any other: I think rather the best. A *new beginner* will generally do his utmost; and if he has *the faculty* to keep school at all, he will do as well the first winter as ever; but an old master who has got his name up, is apt to be lazy.'

They all agreed in these views, but Mr M. He only observed that he thought his kinsman might be obtained as low as any body who had kept school before; and that, for his part, he thought his having taught school one season was no very weighty objection against him.

'Is there no one else in view?' said the Moderator.

Mr Davidson then observed that some of them had thought of Arthur Lewis. 'He is a young man of good learning, and if he could be obtained low enough, we know no reason why he would not keep a good school.'

'I should like somebody *out of the district* better;' said Mr M. 'I have no objection to Arthur, only that he is young, and has always been to school here, and I am afraid it would not be so well for him or for us on that account. I have do doubt that Arthur could get a certificate, and would keep a good school in any other neighborhood.'

'What does he ask a month?' said the Moderator.

Mr Davidson replied, that he did not know; but presumed they could find out, as his father was present, and Arthur, if at home, was near by.

Mr Lewis said that he did not know what Arthur would conclude about keeping at all; but for his part he should be glad, if he kept, to have him board at home, and help him when it was not school hours.

'Is Arthur at home this evening?' said Mr Davidson.

'I believe he is;' Mr L. replied. 'Had you not better consult him?' said the Moderator.

'I can, if you wish,' he replied.

'Meanwhile,' said the other, 'we can talk about board, and wood, and repairing the windows.'

Arthur was at home indeed, and his heart was palpitating the whole evening. He was tempted to go to the school-house and 'eave-drop,' but had not done it yet. When his father opened the door, his heart was up in his mouth in an instant.

'I come,' said his father, 'to determine, as quick as possible, on the price, if you should take the school. What do you think you ought to have?'

Arthur '*did not know*;' and here a long conversation ensued; but to cut the matter short, they at length determined on ten dollars a month and board himself; and his father returned to the school-house, and informed the meeting of the result.

A question now arose in regard to the public money. How much should they have in the spring? It was supposed about thirty dollars. This, then, would only pay for *three months' tuition*, whereas they had generally kept up a school *four*.

There were other difficulties. Some were as willing to have a teacher, who boarded in the district, as one who boarded himself. It cost very little to board a person a few days, if he would take up with such living as they were accustomed to. And then he would in this way get more familiarly acquainted with the children. They could probably get young men enough to teach for seven or eight dollars a month and board them; and in this way they could have a longer school.

'Why, Mr Parker,' they observed, 'had only ten dollars a month, last winter, and boarded himself, and his school was much larger than ours, and he is an old teacher. Boughton has only eight a month and his board, this winter; and Hopkins only seven.'

But it was necessary to decide on something, the Moderator said; to save the trouble and expense of time consequent upon another meeting. Master Arthur was near by; they all knew him; his character and learning were good: — he could be had; — 'a bird in the hand was worth two in the bush.' Had they not on the whole better employ him? So Arthur was agreed on. He was to take the school for three months; but on account of paying him so well, he was to keep the *whole*, instead of *half* of each Saturday. They were desirous also that he should have an evening school occasionally; but this he did not consent to. They were anxious, also, that he should make the morning fires, and receive the ashes for compensation. This, too, at first, he refused; but afterwards agreed to it.

But now for the *examination*. The time was at hand when he must commence his school. Would the Committee of Examination give him a certificate? Without a license from them, he could not teach, of course. This was an ordeal he greatly dreaded, lest after all he should not *pass*.

He had heard that they were nice in their examination on the Spelling Book. So he went to studying the Introduction. He had committed it to memory and repeated it a thousand times over at school; but lest he should forget something, he studied it over and over again, to see that everything was at his tongue's end. He did the same with his arithmeti-

cal rules and tables. Several copies were also written [painted] off, at great labor, in the hope that the Committee would examine these, and not require him to write on the spot.

The time of examination came. He was introduced to a room where were collected four out of nine of the Board of Examination, among whom he was happy to find Mr St. John, his former teacher, and Doctor Physic, who had just carried him through (I do not say helped him out of,) a long fit of sickness, and who would of course be pretty lenient. From the moment he saw who were present, he took courage.

'Well,' said Mr St John, 'we will examine you first, if you please, in the Spelling Book. How many sounds has the letter *B*?'

Arthur's color came; and his heart was up in his mouth again. He knew perfectly well, if he could only have thought. And he could have thought, if the question had come up in course; but to begin right in the middle of what he had been accustomed to repeat, from beginning to end, was what he was unable to do at first. But his embarrassment soon began to give way, for he recollected the right answer; and stammered out 'B has but one sound, as in *bite*.'

'How many sounds has *C*, Master Arthur?' Arthur recollected and answered very promptly. And now the words and sentences came faster than the Committee wanted them; for having set his mill going, he hardly knew where to stop it; and repeated the language of the book, paragraph after paragraph, very accurately, till they told him it was sufficient.

He was also required to repeat the rules of arithmetic; and to read and write. His hand was too unsteady to write well; but several of the Committee knew his skill in that branch, and only made the requirement as a formality. He was requested to spell. In this branch he was found quite accurate. In reading he was the most deficient. He read loudly, and in a tone entirely unlike that of ordinary conversation. Besides this, he lisped a little. But the committee, as it afterwards appeared, regarded this as unimportant. They said he could teach the *pupils* to read well without being a good reader *himself*; forgetting that children learn this art, in a very great degree, by imitation. They entertained the same views in regard to his diffidence, and vulgar language and manners. 'He has a good heart,' they thought; 'and will teach the children well, no doubt, if he does not speak and act well himself. These things are his *misfortune*, not his *fault*.' A strange conclusion this! Why, suppose Arthur had lost both his arms in early life; this would have been his *misfortune* too, but would he therefore be fit to teach? As well might *he* be qualified to teach by example whose education had rendered his example very improper, or unsafe.

'Shall Master Arthur retire,' said Dr Physic, 'while we consult whether we will give him a certificate?' 'That is quite unnecessary,' said the rest. 'Mr B. you are the youngest,' said Mr St John, 'what do you think,—*aye* or *nay*?' 'Aye,' said Mr B. 'Aye,' said all the others, in succession; and Master Arthur, who was thenceforth called Master Lewis, was licensed!

But before they separated, Mr St John gave him a long lecture on the responsibilities of his station, and the new obligations which he was about to assume, to his fellow beings, and to God. Master Lewis heard him with great *sang froid*, and with a deep sigh, bade them good night; benefited by the lecture about as much, I suppose, as young men ordinarily are on such occasions. He tripped lightly home to relate his story in the domestic circle, and to prepare for opening his school the next Monday morning.

Such is a faithful account of the mode of examining and employing a teacher, and a favorable specimen of both, as these matters are conducted in very many of our towns.

Is it not a little strange that the whole examination of a candidate for school teaching should turn on the question, Does he *possess* the necessary *knowledge?* A teacher may have all *knowledge* even of "mysteries," and yet set a very bad example both in and out of school. It is true they require, in many places, that the teacher shall be a person of good *moral character*, but generally this subject is wholly overlooked in employing him. But let it be remembered, a great many may be called, in general terms, persons of good morals, that is, not notoriously and openly vicious, whose characters, are yet very improper, and even unsafe models.

But again; suppose a person *possesses* all the necessary *knowledge*. Does this prove that he has either the *tact* or the *love* of communicating it? It is true a person must have knowledge, or he cannot teach; but he may also be as learned as an encyclopedia, and yet be both unfit and unable to impart this learning.

Why, then, is no regard had to this consideration, in the examination of teachers? They cannot have *positive* evidence how well calculated for teaching a person may be, until he has actually *taught;* it is true. But they never ask him what he would do in such circumstances. How will you teach spelling, writing, reading, &c, are questions that are rarely if ever asked. Would any man employ a mechanic to build him a house, till he first knew something of his views about building?

But there is something more important than this. How will the teacher govern? What are his views of discipline? What means would he adopt to secure obedience — to reform the vicious — to subdue the obstinate — to rouse the indolent — to awaken the sleeping conscience, and to inspire the pupil with a proper respect for himself and others? Are these questions ever agitated, at the examination of a candidate for school keeping? Never, that I have heard of. Nothing of the kind took place at the examination of Master Lewis; and I venture to say, was not even thought of. How often are our school examinations better than this? I fear seldom. '*These things ought not so to be.*'

Art. VIII. — Geology. — Dialogue II.

'See, father, I have brought you a pocket full of minerals from the river side, and the gravel hill, and I believe almost all of them are quartz.'

'What makes you think they are quartz, my son?'

'Why, father, I rubbed a nail upon them, and I could not scratch them, and the nail left a mark like iron upon the stone. And one of the rest of the stones would scratch it. Besides that, they make a light, and a curious smell when I rub them together. I wish I could tell whether they would strike fire.'

'Well, my son, here is a little steel which I had made for you, like a little horse shoe. See how they strike fire.'

'O yes! father; try these. I thought they were quartz, all the while.

But here is another stone that has quartz in it, but it seems to have other things. I knocked it off from the great rock by the road side.'

'How does it look?'

'It is a little like quartz, but it is not so clear. It is more milky, but some of it is reddish.'

'Is it hard?'

'It is not so hard as quartz; the iron will scratch it, and it will not scratch glass.'

'I am glad you are learning to perceive the difference of things. That piece is called *feldspar*; *feld*, the German for *field*, and *spar*, which means a mineral that is bright or glittering. If you turn it back and forward, you will perceive that it has some smooth parts, which look as if they were polished; and straight cracks across it, which seem as if they were cut or marked with a chisel. Sometimes you will find pieces that will break into rhomboids, or diamond shape. Do you think you can tell it from quartz?'

'Yes, father; it is not so hard. It is milky, and it is smooth and shining, like a piece of china; and some of the pieces I see, break into a kind of squares. But is it of any use, father?'

'Yes, my son. When feldspar decays, it turns into the most beautiful clay; and it is of this that they make the finest china-ware. But here is something else in this stone, which you have not noticed. It is glittering, like feldspar, but if you cut it with a knife, you will find it divide into scales as thin as paper, glittering on both sides.'

'Yes, I see it, father; and these little flakes bend and spring back, like a piece of tin.'

'Yes, my son, they are *elastic*, but are they hard?'

'No, sir. I can scratch them with this nail very easily. What is it called?'

'Many people call it *isinglass*, but this name belongs to fish glue. It is properly called *mica*, from the Latin word *micare*, which means to shine. In some parts of the country it is so large that they put it into lanterns, instead of glass; and in Russia they often put it into their windows. It is partly the mica that makes the sand by the sea shore so glittering.'

'It is very pretty, indeed. And now, father, I know three letters of the Alphabet of Geology: Quartz, Feldspar and Mica.'

'Yes, my son; and I will explain to you a *word* which these three letters make. The stone you now have in your hand is composed of the three; quartz, feldspar and mica, and is called *granite*. The highest mountains in the world are made of granite. It is one of the hardest and best building stones, and it is used very much for that purpose.'

Dialogue III.

'Well, father, I have found a great many specimens of mica and feldspar; but I find them almost always together, or with quartz; and they have different colors.'

'That is true, my son. They are almost always mixed, and form granite, and when you find them separately, they are very often pieces of granite. You will sometimes find a large piece of rock which looks as if it were all quartz; but if you look farther, you will find mica and feldspar in another part of the same rock. But do you know what use they make of granite?'

'O yes, father; they use it for building. I have seen two or three churches built of granite; and they use it for pillars and window sills, and door steps, because it is so hard, and never wears out.'

'*Never*,' is a long word, my son. I have seen granite stones worn

away by the steps of those who passed over them; but it will last a great while. In Rome, I saw a red pillar of granite, that was brought from Egypt before the birth of Christ, almost two thousand years ago; and it had stood there a great while.

'But, father, I thought granite was grey! William's specimen was, and so is that of which the church is built.'

'But you will recollect, my son, that you have found quartz and mica, and feldspar too, of various colors; and therefore granite may have as many.'

'That is true, father; but William, who learned it from a piece of the *very rock itself*, with a *label* on it, says it is *always* grey!'

'That shows you, my son, that while *specimens* are very valuable, and every school ought to have them, you must have *instruction*, too.'

'Well, father, you have told me the use of mica and feldspar; of what use is quartz?'

'Why, my son, of the same use in the rocks, as the bones in the body. You have just told me how useful granite is on account of its hardness; and it is *quartz* which gives granite and the greater part of our rocks their hardness and strength. The mica and feldspar, alone, would easily be broken, and soon decay. But look through this microscope.'

'Oh! I see a great many pieces of quartz in a heap, and some bits of mica.'

'Now take away the microscope, and see what is under it.'

'Why, father, it *looks* just like sand!'

'It *is* sand, my son. Sand is generally nothing but quartz, ground into small pieces; and now can you tell me any other uses of quartz?'

'Why, if sand is quartz, it is very useful. They put it into mortar, and it is used to scour floors, and I have seen them rub it upon stones to make them smooth. I do not see how we could do without quartz, then.

'Besides this, we could not make glass, or china, or stone ware, without sand or pounded quartz, or flint; and it makes a part of vegetables, so that they could not grow without it.'

'Why, father, I did not know that stones were so useful.'

'The more you learn about the works of God, my son, the more you will find reason to wonder at his wisdom and goodness, who has made nothing in vain.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Improvement in Teaching.

[We have just received a letter from a teacher, whose zeal in the cause we cordially approve, and we are much obliged by the kind interest he expresses for this work. We will merely observe, that it never needed more the aid of its friends. We insert extracts from the letter, which we think will interest our readers.]

As a substitute for a Lyceum, every Monday evening I give a lecture in my school room on some useful subject. I have examined our popular superstitions, and traced them, when I was able, to their origin; illustrating those parts of the Bible which mention witchcraft, and the manner by which our modern jugglers, (such as Chaubert, &c,) perform their 'wonders.' W. Scott and Brewster have been our principal guides in these subjects. I am now engaged in simplifying the Lectures of Mr Good, and giving our friends whatever is the most useful for them out of

that noble collection. To interest people, generally, in our meetings, we, at the close of every lecture, have some chemical experiments, illustrating the decomposition and formation of water, pressure of the atmosphere, &c, &c. One means of disseminating a good amount of intelligence which we have adopted, I cannot forbear mentioning. On some periodicals, (such as the Annals of Education, Adelphic Magazine, Journal of Health, People's Magazine, Family Lyceum, &c,) I write my name, 'Return this next Monday evening,' — then, after having numbered each one, and placed it in an envelope formed of stout paper, having the sides secured with paste, I circulate them among the gentlemen and ladies who attend the lectures, charging them to each when issued, and crediting them when returned. This plan of circulating papers we, however, do not confine to this department, but extend it to our Sunday and day schools. In our day school we circulate five youth's literary periodicals, giving to each child who has conducted properly, two each week.

Since I have touched on the subject of our day school, I will venture to give you a synopsis of our plans in regard to that. Besides distributing our periodicals, we have a small library of about 50 volumes, comprising Parley's, and similar works, which we circulate among our pupils. We have a map of the State, (scale three miles to an inch,) by the means of which we endeavor to impress deeply the relative situation of places on the youthful mind. With the map of the Holy Land, we likewise endeavor to make our pupils familiar. Holbrook's apparatus, and Abbott's Little Philosopher, assist our scholars greatly in *looking into* our common things. Each pupil is provided with a common-place-book, in which he writes whatever I have selected and simplified for the school. Whatever I meet with in my reading which I know will be useful to them, I do not fail, when it is possible, to let all copy it in their books. We devote one hour every day to viewing minute objects through the microscope, or examining the landscape through a prism, and to the study of botany and mineralogy, giving whatever explanations occur to us, which the young mind can comprehend. With botany our pupils are highly delighted, as they are taught the qualities and botanical names of all the plants in their vicinity. By having the Infant School cards, and lithographic prints of the A. S. S. Union, our pupils have acquired quite a general view of the animal kingdom. You, sir, doubtless recollect, that Mr Hall, in his Lectures on School Keeping, recommends 'five minutes' lectures' to the school. We have endeavored to profit by his hint, and accordingly when anything useful occurs to us, and we perceive our pupils not very industrious, we inform them they may lay aside their books and hear a story, after which they are much more assiduous than before. Every child that is able to write at all, we require to write one letter a week to a school fellow, or to some other friend, in which we advise him to mention all the new ideas he may have obtained since his last letter. We find this last requisition causes them to retain what they hear so accurately, that I often perceive not only the ideas clearly expressed, which they may have received some time previous, but the language expressing them verbatim as I had used it. The elements of anatomy is another subject which pleases our pupils in a very particular degree. Nothing seems to delight them more than learning the names and uses of their bones, the cartilages, ligaments, &c. But I will not trouble you with further details at present.

Peculiarities of the American Sunday School Union.

1. It embraces members who belong to the following denominations of Christians: — Baptists, Episcopalians, Methodists, Presbyterians, Mora-

vians, Dutch Reformed, Congregationalists, Lutherans, Friends, German Reformed, and others.

2. No clergyman can ever be an officer or manager of the Society. The constitution provides that the officers and managers shall be laymen.

3. The mechanical work of the Society, paper-making, stereotyping, engraving, printing, binding, &c, is all done by contract. The Society owns neither types, presses, nor tools of trade; and is only responsible for using the best endeavors to get its work done well, and at a fair price.

4. All the time and services of the Board are bestowed gratuitously. The superintendent of the Society's book-store, the editors of the Society's publications, and the clerks, are paid for their services.

5. All the books of the Society are published under the direction of a committee, consisting of eight members, from at least four different denominations of Christians, and not more than two members from any one denomination; and no book can be published to which any member of the committee shall object.

6. There are five standing committees, appointed by, and from, the members of the Board, to whom are referred the business and communications which properly belong to them respectively, viz: Committee of Publication — on the General and Sub-Depositories — on Missions and Agencies — on Accounts, and on Real Estate. The proceedings of these committees are subject to the approbation of the Board, to whom they report from their minute books semi-monthly.

7. Each subscriber of three dollars, annually, is a member. Each subscriber paying thirty dollars at one time, is a member for life. Sunday School Societies or Unions, sending a copy of their constitution, a list of their officers, and an annual report, are auxiliary, and entitled to purchase books at the reduced prices.

8. The establishment and support of Sunday Schools in every part of the country, being the great object of the Union, the agents and missionaries employed by the Society are instructed to extend their labors indiscriminately among every denomination of evangelical Christians; and men of every such denomination are employed in the accomplishment of this great work.

9. The entire funds of the Society, arising from the sale of its publications, and contributions from benevolent individuals, are devoted exclusively to the benefit of Sunday Schools.

10. The Society is so constituted, that, in the management of its affairs, one denomination cannot gain the ascendancy over another on account of sectional distinction; a *union of effort towards the same great end* being distinctly marked out by the constitution as necessary to be preserved.

11. The American Sunday School Union has no control over its auxiliaries, each school being left to the exercise of its own authority. The advantages of auxiliaryship are designed for the schools, and not for the Union.

12. A report of the Society's transactions is published annually, immediately after the anniversary in May, at which it is read, subject to the action of the meeting.

13. The principle observed in regulating the prices of the publications of the Society is, that the books shall be sold at the lowest possible rates, affording a profit sufficient only to meet the current expenses of the Society; and books not published by the Society, cannot be sold without the consent of the Committee of Publications. The sale of books by the Society, on commission, is not allowed.

INTELLIGENCE.

Primary Instruction in Prussia.

In a very recent edition of Cousin's Report on the state of Public Instruction in some countries of Germany, and particularly in Prussia, at page 269, we find the following facts, respecting the Prussian primary schools.

According to the census taken at the close of 1825, there were, in the whole kingdom of Prussia, 12,256,725 inhabitants. Of these, 4,487,461 were under 14 years of age; which shows, that of 1000 inhabitants, 366 were children. As the public school education commences at the end of the seventh, we may calculate that three sevenths of the whole of that part of the population are proper subjects of instruction; or in the whole of Prussia, 1,923,200.

We find that at the close of 1825, there were in the kingdom 21,623 primary schools, in which were employed 22,261 masters, and 704 mistresses; to which may be added, 2024 male and female assistants. These schools afforded instruction to about 1,664,218 children.

It follows, therefore, from the preceding estimates, that in 1825 thirteen fifteenths of the children, between seven and fourteen years of age, were under instruction. Besides these, considerable numbers receive instruction from their parents, or in private schools, or the lower classes of the gymnasia.

We find from a recent Sunday School Journal that M. Cousin has lately published at Paris, a Supplement to the above excellent work, exhibiting the condition of instruction in Prussia at the close of 1831; which shows that the progress of instruction in that kingdom is greater than in some more highly favored countries.

The population in 1831 was 12,726,825. The whole number of children under 14 years of age, was 4,767,072; of whom 2,043,030 were of the school age, that is, from 7 to 14.

The number of children actually in the primary schools, was 2,021,421; or only 21,609 short of what the law requires. It is also curious to observe, that while the population has advanced less than *four per cent*, the increase of the number of those who receive instruction in the primary schools, is equal to more than *twentyone* per cent; a state of things widely different from that which prevails in the United States, — where the reverse is much nearer the truth.

But Cousin further states, that there were in 1831, 22,612 primary schools, of which 21,789 are elementary, and 823 *medium*, or between the former and the gymnasia. The elementary schools comprise both sexes: so also do part of the medium schools. Besides elementary schools in every town in Prussia, more than three fourths of the towns have one medium school in them. Connected with the schools, were 27,749 teachers of both sexes; the females, however, so far as Cousin could ascertain, being exclusively employed as assistants.

Thus what public opinion has in that monarchy failed to do, law and power and penalties have accomplished. It is a curious fact in the history of Prussian education, that among other penalties, we find that of prohibiting the clergy from admitting to the communion those who have not spent at school the time required by the statute.

Common Schools in Illinois.

The state of the Illinois School Fund, and the recent legislative enactments in that State, with a view to enable the inhabitants to avail themselves of its benefits, have been detailed in former numbers of this work.

In the Illinois Patriot for July 20, is an address of Mr Thomas, the School Commissioner of the State, to the people of Morgan county; or rather an answer to numerous particular inquiries which had been made of him, in regard to the intention and effects of the late acts. Mr T.'s explanation of the object and intentions of the law on this subject, as well as his illustrations of its practical tendency, is highly interesting. He strongly insists on the importance and necessity of immediately organising into districts and building school-houses, 'not merely with the view of obtaining a small amount of public funds,' but with a view to the 'consequences likely to result:' and he also urges it as *a duty*, — one which all classes of citizens admit. He also shows, by clear estimates, the economy of the measures which he urges; that the money which is now expended on 'subscription' schools, would not only sustain common schools on a judicious plan, but that in this way money enough would be actually saved in two years to build a school-house (in that region) which would accommodate seventyfive scholars.

The whole document is one of general, as well as local, interest; and we cannot but hope that this enterprising State will avail themselves of the practical wisdom of the individual whom they have selected to fill a most important office.

Clinton County Common School Association.

An association of teachers, school inspectors and trustees of academies, for the purpose of improving common schools, was formed at Plattsburgh, N. Y. on the 21st of August last. Their object is thus clearly set forth in one of the articles of the constitution which was there adopted.

'The object which this association shall aim to effect by all its operations, shall be to avail ourselves of all improvements in the matter or mode of instruction, by collecting and disseminating information on the subject — to produce an uniformity of books, and procure the introduction of apparatus into the schools in this county; and generally to devise, and carry into effect, measures calculated to raise the standard of common school education in this county.'

The formation of the above association was probably hastened by a series of essays, published by request of the Trustees of Plattsburgh Academy, in the 'Democratic Press,' in the month of August. These essays develope many important facts, and show, in a striking manner, some of the defects in the usual methods of common school instruction; and while they urge the importance, and even the necessity, of improvement on the one hand, do not hesitate to caution the public against confounding innovation with improvement on the other. The writer endeavors to show, and most obviously with success, that we generally throw away several years of the early life of our children, by our neglect of common education. He insists that it is monstrous that 'three years, exceeding *one tenth* of the average age of man, should be entirely annihilated, or flung away, for what is worse than no equivalent.'

Clinton High School Association.

An association under this name has also been recently formed in Plattsburgh, whose object is the formation of a High School in that vicin-

ity, with which shall be connected 'a farm, and such other appurtenances as may be necessary to promote the interest of said institution, by rendering facilities to students in acquiring an education.'

Manual Labor Schools.

We are gratified to see that the subject of Manual Labor Schools has been taken up with zeal by two of the most extensive religious denominations in our country. From a report of the 'Society for the promotion of liberal and common education, under the patronage of the Methodist Episcopal Church,' we learn that a committee was, sometime since appointed, to consider the subject of connecting manual labor with study, in their schools and seminaries. This committee consisted of Messrs G. P. Disosway, T. Merritt and J. L. Phelps, and the report was printed by order of the Society, in the New York Christian Advocate and Journal, of August 16.

From a patient examination of the whole subject, the Committee state their full conviction of the importance of Manual Labor Schools. They say that the plain inference from existing facts is, 'that the body and the mind should be disciplined together; hence it becomes a matter of the first consideration, to promote such plans of instruction as will form vigorous minds, exerting that power in vigorous bodies.'

They add that Milton, two centuries ago, with the force peculiar to his style of writing, urged the necessity of connecting physical and mental instruction together, in literary institutions; that Dr Rush, more than forty years ago, recommended that the student should work with his own hands in the intervals of study; and that since that period, and especially of late, some of the most eminent instructors and writers on education, in England, France, Germany and the United States, have adopted and advocated the same sentiment, and reference is made to this work.

The Committee observe, that they derive much of their information from the able report of Mr Weld; though it is evident, from an examination, that many facts have been added, respecting the Manual Labor Schools which are under the special patronage of the Methodist denomination. Some of these are evidently flourishing, and we wish our limits permitted the introduction of several important extracts concerning them.

The three following notices will show that the Baptists are also engaged in the same important work.

Connecticut Baptist Literary Institution.

A seminary was opened in the town of Suffield, Conn. on the 21st of August, with thirty students, and their number has since increased to sixty. The trustees assembled for the transaction of business, and adopted such measures as seemed necessary to promote the progress and welfare of the institution. Drafts and estimates for buildings were presented; arrangements made for securing *immediate* productive labor for the students, a site was purchased, &c. The site is a commanding eminence in the centre of the town, fronting on the main street leading from Hartford to Springfield. It contains sixteen acres of most excellent land, in a high state of cultivation. Connected with it is a spacious dwelling-house, and other buildings. The cost is $3500. A better location, in all respects, could not be found, though many beautiful sites were shown to the Board. The brick for the seminary is purchased, and measures were in operation to give all possible speed to its erection and completion.

Worcester Manual Labor High School.

The Committee for superintending the arrangements of the premises for the organization and operation of this proposed school, have purchased a tract of land of about sixty acres, embracing a beautiful elevation in the southern part of the village, on the Brookfield road. A three-story house of wood, with out-buildings, has been erected, and is in progress towards completion, for the use and occupancy of the steward, who will board all the pupils in his family. The academic building will stand on a line with the steward's house, in the rear of an enclosed square, about twenty rods from the street; and will be sixty feet by fortytwo, and three stories high; the basement story of stone, and the two stories above of brick. The entrance is to be through a retreating vestibule in the centre of the front, shaded by a portico of the Doric order, resting on four pillars, two and a half feet in diameter, and twentyone feet shaft, and fluted. On each side of the vestibule there will be private rooms for the accommodation of the instructors. The school-room will be sixty feet by thirty, lighted by windows in the rear and ends of the building, and will afford accommodations for 150 students. The plan of the grounds embraces reserved lots for the erection of such shops as may be necessary to carry into effect the system of manual labor, and other buildings that may be required for the convenience and accommodation of the school.

Although this school will owe its existence mainly to the liberality and energy of the Baptist denomination, yet we assure the public that there will be nothing sectarian in its character. The Committee will expend about $12,000 before the first of April next, when it is expected that the school will be opened. An act of incorporation will be obtained at the next session of the Legislature; the school be placed under the control of trustees; and the course of study, government and discipline, be established on broad and liberal principles.

Institution at Haddonfield.

The General Baptist Association of Philadelphia, have purchased a farm at Haddonfield, for the purpose of commencing a Theological College on the manual labor system. The farm consists of 100 acres of the finest land.

School in Dayton, Ohio.

A Manual Labor School is also about to be opened in Dayton, Ohio. We do not know that it is attached to any particular denomination.

Bilston Cholera Schools.

A late English paper states, that contributions to a considerable amount have been made in Bilston, England, in behalf of the children who were made orphans, by the destructive ravages of the cholera there last year; that the schools were opened with much ceremony, August 3d; and that no less than 480 children, most of whom were under 12 years of age, were enrolled and admitted. The ceremony of admission was peculiar, but attended with some circumstances which detracted much from the dignity and solemnity of the occasion. Such were the suspension, by means of a black ribbon, of medals round the necks of all the children; and, towards the close of the ceremony, arranging them in lines, and treating each of them with 'a large piece of plum cake and a glass of wine!' for what *useful* purpose it is difficult to imagine. We were interested, however, to find, that the *houses* for their reception are well lighted and ventilated. These last circumstances, so far as they go, are highly creditable to those who have undertaken to conduct this benevolent work.

Deaf and Dumb in Europe.

At the last anniversary of the Asylum for this class, held recently in London, the chairman said he would mention that it had been ascertained that in England the number of deaf and dumb persons was 12,000, in France 16,000, and in Austria 27,000. In England there were forty schools for the education of the deaf and dumb, which afforded education to 492 children. The proportion of deaf and dumb persons educated in England, amounted to one in every three so afflicted; in Scotland, to one in every one and a half; and in Ireland, only one in every seven. In some parts of Germany, however, every one of that unfortunate class was afforded the means of education.

NOTICES.

Historical Class Book. Part first. Containing Sketches of History, from the Beginning of the World to the end of the Roman Empire in Italy, A. D. 476. By Wm. Sullivan, LL. D. Fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and of the Massachusetts Historical Society. (Author of the Political and Moral Class Books.) Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 264.

We are gratified to see the increasing number of historical works written by Americans, and in the spirit of American institutions. We hope they will be so multiplied as to exclude from our schools the imperfect works of Goldsmith, and those of other authors, who have written in a manner little adapted to our country. Few men are better qualified for this task than the author of the work before us, and our favorable anticipations concerning it have not been disappointed. The style has the terseness and force found in other works of Mr Sullivan, with more, we think, of clearness and elegance, and with not less of practical application. We are glad to see that many of the fables, so carefully preserved in most of our historical school-books, including even that of Romulus and Remus, are rejected by Mr Sullivan, with the contempt that Niebuhr has so fully shown them to deserve. The forms and changes of government, and other important events in the history of ancient nations, are employed to impress practical lessons upon American youth. The authenticity and divine origin of Sacred History are presented with a distinctness and boldness, which are not common in works of this kind; and the Hebrews are placed in their proper rank among the nations of the world, as the channel through which 'must be deduced the moral and religious improvement, and the social refinement, to which mankind have attained.' The classical student is also clearly taught the miserable deficiency of ancient patriotism, and learning, and refinement, and morals, when compared with the standard which Christianity has formed. The concluding comparison of ancient nations with our own, presents our advantages and dangers in the most striking and forcible manner; and we wish it could appear in some form which will call the attention of our citizens as well as our youth. We think, however, that war and glory are presented in too fascinating a light, even in this work.

The New Children's Friend. By Mrs Markham.

We are disappointed in this work. Its scenes are in many particulars unnatural; they contain too many practical instructions in evil, which would rather excite than check an active child; and they are generally adapted to a state of society and modes of thinking quite unlike ours. Transmigration is quite objectionable. Some of these stories, however, are very interesting, and the spirit of the work is admirable. We think, however, Berquin is not rivalled in his peculiar province.

Primary Geography for Children, on an improved plan, with Eleven Maps and numerous Engravings. By C. & H. Beecher, Principals of the Western Female Institute, Cincinnati. Corey & Fairbanks, 1833. Sq. 18mo. pp. 112.

We are gratified to see this and other evidences of western enterprise on the subject of education. This little work combines the plans of induction and comparison. It commences with a clear and interesting account of the nature of a map, so necessary at the outset; but we cannot approve, in a *first book*, of the plan of proceeding immediately to the abstractions and mathematical terms of Geography; nor do we see any reason for deferring the account of the United States until the pupil is acquainted with other portions of the world. These defects in the plan are balanced by the simple and graphic style of description, and the interesting details which fill up the body of the work. We think, however, the accounts of pagan cruelty, are too much extended for a child's book. The engravings are generally good, though not new; but we are sorry to see bad drawings among them. Every opportunity is taken to inculcate moral and religious instruction, and we think the work will be very interesting to children, without cultivating a false taste or gratifying the appetite for the marvellous.

Elements of Geometry, with Notes. By J. R. Young. Revised and corrected; with additions, by M. Floy, jr, A. B. Philadelphia: Carey, Lea & Blanchard. 1833. 8vo. pp. 216.

An Elementary Treatise on Algebra, Theoretical and Practical, with attempts to simplify some of the more difficult parts of the science, particularly the Demonstration of the Binomial Theorem, in its most general form; the Solution of Equations of the higher orders; the Summation of Infinite Series, &c; intended for the use of Students. By J. R. Young. First American edition, with additions and improvements. By Samuel Ward, jr. Philadelphia: Carey & Lea, Chesnut st. 1832. 8vo. pp. 352.

We have laid aside these books for some weeks, to wait a moment of leisure and vigor, for a task which seemed to be serious. We were at length compelled to take up the geometry after a day of toil, and were not a little relieved to find amusement in place of labor. The distinctness of the definitions, and their immediate connection with the theorems to which they belonged, and the regular and easy succession of subjects, the variety and usefulness of the problems, and the general transparency and simplicity of the reasoning, led us on with an interest wholly unexpected. The author has attempted to combine the vigor of Euclid's demonstrations, with the improvements of modern French mathematicians; and has introduced more *converse propositions* than usual. We cannot venture to pronounce on the accuracy of a work of this kind, when the author informs us that a proposition of Simson's Geometry, current for upwards of seventy years, is false! But we feel justified in recommending it, as a safe and peculiarly interesting guide, to the student in Geometry.

The treatise on Algebra is fully described in its title. The elementary rules we think are not so clearly explained as in some other treatises; but the illustrations which we have been able to examine, in other parts of the work, are clear and interesting, and the examples are calculated to render them practical. The character of the author is an additional security that it will be a valuable text-book to the mathematical teacher.

The Life and Voyages of Christopher Columbus. By Washington Irving. Abridged by the same. New York: G. C. & H. Carvill. 832, pp. 267.

This work has been recently recommended by the Legislature of the State of New York, for general and other schools. We cannot better express our views of it, than in the following language of the Superintendent of Schools in N. York:

'The Life and Voyages of Columbus were written under circumstances well calculated to secure, what the author is universally admitted to have attained — fidelity in historical detail, and in delineations both of national and individual character.'

'The abridgment, which the Legislature have recommended in the foregoing

resolutions, to be used in the common schools as a class book, possesses all the characteristic merits of the original work, although in a composition so full of beauties, many have necessarily been lost in compressing it into a narrower compass: and the Superintendent does not hesitate to say, that he knows no work better suited to be introduced into the common schools, for the use of the higher classes. Independently of the unblemished purity of its style and thought, it exhibits in a minute detail, with which all should be familiar, the discovery and first settlement, by civilized men, of the continent in which our own country occupies so conspicuous a place — a continent destined, perhaps at no distant day, through the influence of the free institutions which have taken root among us, to change the political character of the old world, by pouring into it, in streams far more precious than the fountains of wealth which were opened by the discovery, the treasures of an enlightened and practical freedom.

Philosophical Conversations, in which are familiarly explained the Causes of many daily occurring natural phenomena. By Frederick C. Bakewell. With Notes and Questions for review. By Ebenezer Bailey, Principal of the Young Ladies' High School, Boston, author of First Lessons in Algebra, Young Ladies' Class Book, &c. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 286.

This work is not intended, as the editor observes, to be a full treatise on the subject of Natural Philosophy. It is a series of familiar conversations, superior to any we have seen of this kind, except Miss Edgeworth's occasional specimens, explaining the most common phenomena, and the most simple experiments, which can be employed to introduce the pupil to this study. The questions are intended, as all questions should be, to assist the scholar in examining himself; but we are happy to see that there are among them such as would puzzle the mechanical teacher, and force the parrot scholar to think. The notes of the American editor are valuable, and we are pleased with the plan of reprinting the figures interspersed through the work, in a separate form at the end, for the purposes of examination. We consider this a valuable accession to our library of school-books.

The Improvement of the Mind. By Isaac Watts, D. D. With Corrections, Questions, and Supplement. By Joseph Emerson, (late) Principal of a Female Seminary, &c. Revised Stereotype Edition. Boston: James Loring. 18mo. pp. 234.

One of the best guides to self-education ever published; prepared for the use of schools, by an able and experienced teacher. We need not say more. We wish it an extensive circulation; and we hope an edition will be published in superior style, for high schools and private reading. The 'corrections,' we are assured, extend only to the inaccuracies of language.

The New National Spelling-Book and Pronouncing Tutor, on an improved plan; exhibiting the precise sound of each syllable in every word, according to the most approved principles of English Orthoepy, with Progressive Reading Lessons. By B. D. Emerson. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 168.

This work is decidedly an improvement upon the former, by the same author. The Key is more simple; the Reading Lessons are more judiciously selected; the arrangement is improved, and it is more practical. We observe that the *k* in *publick*, *frolick*, &c, and the *u* in favour, honour, and many other words of this class, are omitted; which, alone, will recommend it to many teachers.

A Word to Teachers; or, Two Days in a Primary School. By Wm. A. Alcott. Boston: Allen & Ticknor. 1833. 18mo. pp. 84.

This is a brief but sprightly exhibition of simple and practical methods of instruction, which would be of great value to many a young teacher, and might, if attended to, benefit some who are older.

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

NOVEMBER, 1833.

Art I. — Education of the Poor.

There could not be a greater solecism in political economy than *universal suffrage*, with *limited education*, — and yet, this is the maxim adopted in practice by our own country. More than a million of free white children in the United States, are left without even a common school: another million of our youth, between 15 and 20, find no places provided for their instruction beyond the mere elements of knowledge which they may have acquired;* and a large part of these future citizens, have no means of paying for education. How are these alarming defects in the foundations of our institutions to be supplied?

The duty of providing for the wants of the poor, is imposed by the statute book of the christian, upon all who possess the means; and enforced by the conduct of his great example. It is also recognised by the civil law in most christian nations. To leave them to suffer for want of food, or raiment, or shelter, would be considered a cruelty, of which only pagans and savages are capable. But are these their only wants — or their most pressing necessities? Is it a duty to satisfy the hunger of the body, and may we still leave the mind to starve, for want of its appropriate nourishment? Are we bound to supply other necessities, and not to give them so much instruction as shall open to them those sources of knowledge, from which they may learn their present duties, and their future condition, and shall enable them to understand and govern their own passions and appetites?

* See Annals of Education, Vol. III. p. 361, and p. 404.

But in addition to all the obligations of duty, the whole community have a *direct interest* in the education of the poor. The statistics of poverty and crime, abundantly prove, that the intemperance or evil habits, which were the *first steps* in the progress of corruption, may be traced to the want of instruction, in two thirds of the number of convicted criminals.

One gentleman, examined before the British House of Commons, stated, that in seven hundred or eight hundred juvenile culprits, whose cases he had examined, he found the first causes to be the want of education and instruction. Another stated, that 'of the children he had visited in the different prisons, he had found about two thirds without education; and that as to those who had been to school, it was found they had not attended school with any regularity, nor been enabled to read.'

In the prisons of our own country also, most of the criminals are destitute of the elements of knowledge — but of five hundred and fifty convicts of the Massachusetts State Prison the greater number could only spell out the words of a book, and one hundred were ignorant of the alphabet. One half of the juvenile offenders in the House of Refuge, in New York, were unable to read.

We are by no means of the opinion, that *mere knowledge* will preserve the morals; for some of the most learned men have been among the most corrupt, and some of the most accomplished villains, have been more dangerous in consequence of their knowledge. *Education* must be combined with instruction, and the principle of religious responsibility must be inculcated, or the mere knowledge of letters will be of little avail. Scotland, which was formerly inundated with beggary, has been entirely freed from it by its parish schools; but it is also true, that these schools were imbued with the spirit of religion.

The opinion of almost every writer on political economy, even in France, is, that the education, both intellectual and religious, of the mass of the people, is essential to the welfare of a state. It is admirably observed by Sumner; 'Of all obstacles to improvement, ignorance is the most formidable, because the only sure mode of assisting the poor is to make them agents in bettering their own condition.' Colquhoun, the able investigator of the police of London, observes; 'In my opinion, there is too little exertion used in preventing the propagation and growth of crimes, and too much exertion used in punishing them when they arrive at maturity.' Another writer remarks; 'To suffer the lower orders of the people to be ill-educated, and then to punish them for crimes which have originated in bad habits, has too much the appearance of creating delinquents, for the purpose of putting them to death.'

The question for *the state* to settle is, whether it will pay a moderate sum for the instruction of its citizens, or a far greater amount in money, and suffering, and blood, for poverty and crime; whether it will dry up the sources of wretchedness and vice, or whether it will wait for the accumulating torrents to which they give rise.

The question for *every individual* is, whether he shall aim at the highest degree of security for his property and life, by educating every individual around him in such a manner that he may sustain himself, and be furnished with the knowledge necessary to guide him in the right way, and to guard him from seduction; or whether he chooses to depend upon bars and bolts, and prisons; and to pay the judge, and the sheriff, and the executioners, for taking care of his neighbors, and securing his own safety, rather than to maintain the schoolmaster, and the clergyman.

But in the United States this interest in the education of the whole community, is increased ten fold. In other countries, the individual will suffer by the vices of those who are left without education; but he is protected by the power of a government composed of educated, if not enlightened men, over which the poor have no control. Among us, on the contrary, the very persons in question, the mass of the people, are *his rulers*; they decide who shall make, and who shall execute the laws; they direct the formation, and management of the institutions, on which his liberty, and happiness, and life, and that of his family depend. We have often presented this view of the subject. We shall not cease to urge it, until we can see some evidence that it is admitted and felt. The simple question is, do the wealthy or well educated prefer to be ruled by ignorance, and the corruptions which follow in its train, rather than to pay the expense of universal education? Do they value a tithe of their income more than property and life? Will they pay large sums in order to gain some indemnity for their property when destroyed by fire, and will they give nothing, or give scantily, to insure not their houses only, but their families, from the inroads of corruption, and the ravages of crime?

But these are not the only inducements to the education of the poor. It is on the poor that the rich depend for their comfort. They rely on them as mechanics, and laborers, and domestics, to supply them with all the comforts and necessaries of life; and on their intelligence, and faithfulness, and skill, their earthly enjoyments depend more than on any other cause. The ignorant, and unfaithful mechanic will render their house, and furniture, and clothing, useless, or inconvenient. The ignorant or dishonest laborer will destroy or injure their property; and the domestic, who lacks intelligence or fidelity, may render their food poisonous, or their rooms

unhealthy; and by perpetual negligence or wickedness, may render them uncomfortable every hour in the day.

These are arguments applicable to every man in the community; and they have a force, which nothing but prejudice can resist, and nothing but ignorance and apathy can avoid. But there are others which make a still more powerful appeal to those who feel any personal interest in the rising generation, either as parents, or relatives, or friends, or merely as patriots and philanthropists. We have urged upon our readers, perhaps to weariness, that education is not confined to the school-room, or the college — nay, that it is chiefly given in the family, and in the play-ground, and the street, by the unceasing influence of surrounding objects, and events, and persons. 'Facilis descensus' is a maxim too well established to need a comment. The basest, and most ignorant individual may excite an evil passion or propensity, or implant an evil habit or principle, which the wisest and most faithful parent cannot eradicate with years of labor. How often are the errors of youth, and the vices of manhood, to be traced to the influence of an unfaithful or ignorant domestic, or a corrupt companion, or a debased inhabitant of the streets! Is it not the interest of every family, that the houses of their neighbors should be kept free from infectious disease; and is it not still more important, to preserve them from the more infectious and fatal influence of moral pollution? Shall there be liberal contributions for the vaccination of every poor child, to preserve others from a single disease; and shall there be no liberality in providing that education which is necessary to preserve him from entire corruption, and the evils which spread like a pestilence around it? With the susceptible child, everything he meets exerts an influence on his character. It is as important to him who values the character of his children, or those of his friends, that *all around them* should *be educated*, as it is to preserve the air which he breathes from pestilence, or the town in which he lives from the flames.

What friend of his country is not alarmed at the progress of crime among us? and yet how can it be otherwise, while the darkness of ignorance is spreading so rapidly over the mass of our people? Some years since, a distinguished statesman,* observed, 'that in the course of fifty years' acquaintance with men at the bar, and on the bench, in one of the New England States, he had never known an individual who could not read and write. And then, the purity of New England was proverbial.' Its people are still better taught than in any other section of our country, and it is still comparatively pure. Where is crime most common, and in what ratio does it increase? It is most prevalent where there

* Oliver Ellsworth.

are fewest schools, and the lowest state of education — in the city of New York, where there are 13,000 children who do not attend schools — in those states where the greatest number of European emigrants is found who come without education. What is the amount of this ignorance?

In the first place, agreeably to the calculations founded upon the census, in a late number of this work, we have had an accession of 1,200,000 foreign emigrants in the last ten years; and we still have 10,000 every month, most of whom come to us from the depths of ignorance, and from the scenes of the greatest corruption in civilized society. In Massachusetts, one sixth of the convicts are foreigners, and in Pennsylvania and New York about one fifth. And in a nation, where quarantines and health laws, and lazarettos, and cholera hospitals are deemed so necessary, nothing is done to disinfect this mass of corruption.

But not satisfied with imported ignorance and foreign corruption, we are cultivating it as a domestic production. In New England itself, so reckless are the guardians of our schools in regard to their organization, and discipline, and the character of teachers, that large numbers of the most respectable men in the community regard them as direct nurseries of evil, and refuse to commit their children to them, even to save the tax which they pay for them. In New York, this is not only true, but there is reason to believe that from 50,000 to 80,000 children are destitute of all instruction, besides the flood of adult foreigners which inundate this state. In New Jersey 11,000 adults were found unable to read and write, and in Pennsylvania only 150,000 children, out of 480,000, receive any instruction. If we examine the records of our prisons, we find that Connecticut has one convict in 6,662 inhabitants, and Massachusetts one in 5,558, New York one in 5,532, and Pennsylvania one in 3,968, thus exhibiting a correspondence between the state of education and crime. In Connecticut one in thirteen of the convicts is a foreigner; in Massachusetts one in six; in Pennsylvania one in five and a half; and in New York one in four and a half of all the convicts are from foreign countries. When we go west and south of these states, we find 1,400,000 white children, (in addition to the mass of colored persons who are wholly untaught, and have no motive but fear to restrain their evil passions,) who are destitute of instruction, and growing up to a great extent like the beasts of the field; trained indeed, to certain habits, but utterly untaught and incapable of self-government. The number of these ignorant children is increasing, at the rate of 200 daily. Is it wonderful that crime should increase? If our republican government is based upon the intelligence and virtue of the people, can it subsist without a great, and radical, and speedy change?

In previous articles on the population of the United States, we have only presented the various classes of our white inhabitants, according to age, as the subjects or agents in education. But there is a large and unfortunate portion of the poor inhabitants of our country, of another color, but equally in need of education, as rational and immortal beings. They are, indeed, excluded from all share in our government, and are never called to act as electors; but our security and comfort as citizens depend in no small degree upon their character. To suppose that they are not debased and brutalized by ignorance, and thus rendered more capable of crime, and less susceptible of moral influence, as well as others, would be absurd. To deny that they are capable of being improved, of being brought under the influence of conscience and religion, would be to contradict daily experience in our own country, and in the recent colony of Liberia. Knowledge, combined with religion, will make better servants if they are in servitude, better laborers if they are free, and better neighbors if they are independent.*

The following table presents a view of the whole of this class of our population, and of those under ten, the only age corresponding to that in the enumeration of the white population. The non-slave holding states, in which there is only a small remnant of slaves, are arranged together in the first division of the table, and those in which the number is still great, occupy the second division.

* The following extract, from the Charleston Observer, will show the extent and evils of ignorance, among the slaves of Georgia.

'They believe in second-sight, in charms and visions, and voices and dreams, &c. Designing men, men who wish to gain an ascendancy over them, avail themselves of their ignorance and superstition. This was the course pursued by Denmark Vesey, in Charleston, by Nat Turner in Virginia, and others within our knowledge on a smaller scale. They begin by giving out themselves to the people as great ones in the earth. Their pretensions to courage, to divine protection, to the exercise of peculiar power in consummating their own plans, or the plans of others; to invulnerability, &c, are boldly insisted on; and, of course, without any regard to truth, wherever facts are appealed to for confirmation. Then they avail themselves of the passions and prejudices of the poor people, and thus fit them for their own purposes. They proceed to predict events, or to see visions and dream dreams, or to give out *charms* of various kinds and for various purposes; some charms that buried in the path, or under the door of an enemy, will exert a fatal influence over him; some that will enable the possessor to make free use of any part of his owner's property without detection, and others which will remove sickness or the meditated revenge of enemies, or in the midst of dangers, preserve the person invulnerable. The charms are for any and all uses. They that make them know that they are as good for one use as for another. And then the *composition* of these charms is singular. A bunch of negro or animal hair, or wool, crooked sticks, glass of bottles, rusty nails, roots, &c, &c, prepared in size and quality and with various incantations, suitable to persons and circumstances. One or two *coincidences* are sufficient to establish the pretensions of one of these deliverers, or prophets, or conjurers, or preachers, or doctors; for they go by different names. And the consequence is, they are feared. Their power is dreaded, and a *threat* is sufficient to produce trembling and obedience.'

COLORED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

	Total Colored.	Slaves under 10.	Free under 10.	Total under 10.	Pr ct. of whole.
Maine,	1,207	—	306	306	25
New Hampshire,	623	—	135	135	22
Massachusetts,	7,006	—	1,618	1,618	23
Rhode Island,	3,579	2	692	692	19
Connecticut,	8,057	2	2,070	2,072	26
Vermont,	885	—	242	242	27
New York,	45,126	28	11,252	11,280	25
New Jersey,	20,553	13	5,844	5,857	28
Pennsylvania,	38,376	55	10,149	10,204	26
Ohio,	9,586	—	3,135	3,135	33
Indiana,	3,562	—	1,211	1,211	34
Illinois,	2,399	242	582	824	34
	140,989	340	37,236	38,576	26.6
Delaware,	19, 34	1,088	5,151	6,239	32
Maryland,	155,932	34,882	16,221	51,103	32
Virginia,	517,105	167,207	16,238	183,445	35
North Carolina,	265, 44	90,838	6,725	97,563	37
South Carolina,	265,784	103,344	2,692	106,036	39
Georgia,	220,017	76,469	715	77,184	35
Alabama,	149,121	43,233	520	43,743	37
Mississippi,	66,178	21,897	153	22,050	33
Louisiana,	126.298	27,314	5,143	32,457	25
Tennessee,	146,208	54,281	1,614	55,895	38
Kentucky,	170,130	62,475	1,397	63,872	38
Missouri,	25,660	9,483	164	9,647	38
	2,131,670	692,501	56,733	749,234	36
Territories,	33,686	8,349	3.191	10,458	
TOTAL,	2,306,245	701,190	97.160	798,268	

It appears that the whole number in the United States is 2,272,559. Of these, only 140,989 are found in the states north of the Ohio and the southern line of Pennsylvania, of whom 38,576, or about one fourth, are below ten years of age. This proportion is somewhat less than in the white population of the same states, except in Connecticut and Delaware; but corresponds to the rate of increase in the white inhabitants of the thickly settled states. The usual proportion between five and fifteen is one seventh less than the number under ten years of age in the same states, leaving 32,000 of an age proper for common schools. Of the whole number of colored persons, 32,558 are found in the cities of Boston, Providence,

New-York and Philadelphia, including the county of Philadelphia; and about 6,000 of the children we have named.

We know that there are some excellent schools for colored persons in these cities, but we fear the provision is far from being adequate. In reference to the remaining 26,000, we think there is little reason to suppose that there is good instruction given, except in some of the large towns, and a few of the more liberal country districts. In regard to the adult population, no one is ignorant that they are far from being instructed as they should be; and yet we find, here and there, only an insulated effort for their benefit.

The effects of this neglect and of the consequent ignorance of this part of our population, are striking. In Massachusetts, only one seventyfourth part of the inhabitants are colored; and yet one sixth of the whole number of the convicts are from this class! In Connecticut one thirtyfourth of the inhabitants are colored, and *one third* of the criminals. The same proportion exists in Pennsylvania. In New York, one thirtyfifth of the inhabitants are colored, and one fourth of the criminals. Thus it appears that there are from eight to twelve times as many criminals among this neglected class, as among the better instructed portions of the community.

In the remaining states of the Union, excluding the territories, we find 2,131,670 colored persons, of whom 749,234, or more than one third, are under ten years of age. Among these are only 56,733 who are free. In most of these states, the number between five and fifteen, is one fourth less than those under ten. On this ground the number of children capable of instruction, and who are not capable of laboring during the whole day, amounts to more than 561,926, or one third of the whole colored population. For this mass of human beings, whose character affects so materially the comfort and prospects of the white population of these states, there are no means of instruction, either intellectual, moral, or religious, except in a few insulated spots; and it is thought in many states indispensable, to withhold the very key of knowledge, in order to prevent more dreadful evils. The adult population are provided to a limited extent with public religious instruction; but there is still a large number of the slave holders who deem even this unsafe; and there is a sad deficiency of teachers competent and disposed for this important, but self-denying task, even were the door widely opened.

That it is no less criminal than dangerous to shut out an immortal mind from *the light* of revelation we need not establish, and we know no parallel, but in the soul-murder charged by the German judges on those who confined Caspar Hauser in his ignorance. We do not canvass the subject of educating this part of our population any farther, because in our limits we could not do it jus-

tice, and because we do not wish to be found among those who in the ardor of their zeal, seem to us to 'do evil that good may come.' We know of no adequate means, under existing circumstances, to meet the claims of the master and the slave, to reconcile the views of philanthropy, with the injunctions of law, but the establishment of Sunday Schools. We rejoice that this subject is taken up by the Sunday School Union, and we trust the North and the South will unite in one series of efforts to bring the slave under a sense of responsibility to a Master in heaven, whose eyes are in every place, and whose power can neither be resisted or escaped; and thus prepare them for the blessings of freedom at as early a period as it can safely be bestowed.

A large body of the people of the North, unite with us in sympathizing with our brethren of the South, in view of the dangers which attend the continuance of slavery, and the hazards and the difficulties which obstruct the removal of this evil; and while we thus see them in the perilous strait between Scylla and Charybdis, we can discover no adequate source of wisdom and success, but from above. But in sympathizing with others, it becomes us to look at home. What is it, that constitutes the great evil and danger of slavery to our country? It is, that a mass of human passions is under the direction of ignorance, and without the restraint of cultivation or principle. And are we not preparing a set of *white slaves* at the North, by our neglect of foreign emigrants, and native children, and by the too early and constant confinement of multitudes in our manufactories, who will be as ignorant and corrupt as those of a different color? The only difference will be, that those of the South are in bonds; these will be at liberty, and they will have the power to be our masters.

If then, we wish to see clearly to cast the beam out of our brothers' eye, let us endeavor, if we allow no more, to cast the mote out of our own. Let us remember also this vast difference between the North and the South. With them, this mass of ignorance was like some ruined barony in Europe, an entailed inheritance, which has been already somewhat improved; but *we* received from our fathers, the rich inheritance of a well-educated people, and an excellent system of institutions, which are declining, and going to decay, by the criminal negligence of their descendants.

But the appeal may be made to our *hopes as a nation*, as well as to our fears, on behalf of the education of the poor. The most valuable part of a nation's capital, consists in the intellectual power of its citizens; and no portion of it ought to be husbanded or nursed with so much care. It is this which gives the great value to mere material productions, and to the very soil. How much of the value of cotton is due to the genius of Whitney; and our

very rivers owe half their present usefulness, as the highways of the nation, to the invention of Fulton. How much of our country's happiness and safety do we not owe, to those children of poverty — Franklin and Sherman! What folly then to neglect that class of society which produces such men, and this not less frequently than the ranks of wealth and greatness! It will not be enough to search for and *select* such subjects; for those reflective faculties which give the greatest men their distinction are not developed in early life; and yet, they are always imperfect in their operation, if they are not early supplied with materials for thought.

But if we leave such men out of view, the increase of intellectual power in the mass of those who are to contribute to the wealth and influence of a nation is not less important. Nay, it is indispensable, in order to give to the most powerful minds, the proper sphere of action, the materials on which their force may be exerted, the instruments by which their plans may be executed.

To the persuasions of fear and hope, we must add the demands of *duty*. If there is any correspondence between duties and rights — any reciprocity in obligations — *a Republican Government is bound to provide for the education of every citizen.* How else can he be prepared to understand its laws, and perform the high duties they impose? To attempt to illustrate so obvious a truth, would only help us to forget the intuitive evidence on which it rests.

In whatever light, then, we view the subject, *the Education of the Poor*, is a high and holy duty. Justice demands it; self-interest urges it upon the whole community, and upon every individual; and crime, and misrule, and national ruin, are the penalties, which Providence has affixed to its neglect.

Art II. — On the Ends to be Aimed at in a Course of Education.

By William R. Weeks.

[It is sometimes necessary to revert to first principles—to the very elements of one subject. The following essay developes these principles in the most simple manner, and presents truths which are so familiar as to be almost forgotten. The neglect of them is the source of half the errors of our schools.]

The great object of education is a preparation for usefulness. To acquire the greatest ability to do good, attention must be paid to moral, intellectual and physical culture. We must *be* good ourselves, if we would *do* much good to others. We must acquire knowledge, and know how to use it for practical purposes. And in order to preserve the mind in a healthful and vigorous state, the health and vigor of the animal system must be preserved also. It

is not my intention to discuss all these points in order; it would occupy too much time. I purpose only to remark upon some of the principal ends which ought to be aimed at, in a course of intellectual education. Whether that course shall be more or less extended; or whether it shall be pursued in common schools, or in seminaries of a higher order. I conclude it will be admitted that the following ends should be aimed at, in every case:

1. That we should learn to *think*. This is so obvious that it seems scarcely necessary to mention it; and yet, it is so much neglected, that it seems in many cases, to have escaped the attention of both teachers and learners. How else is it to be accounted for, that teachers have so generally been satisfied, when their pupils have recited according to the *book*, and have so seldom asked for the *reasons*? And how else is it to be accounted for, that so many pupils, who have passed for bright scholars, and can repeat fluently all that their authors say, are struck so dumb, and look so blank, when you ask them to tell 'the *why*?' To be able to take up a subject presented for our consideration, and, by independent investigation, to arrive at a correct result, without reference to books or rules, is certainly a very desirable attainment. And if it cannot be reached in relation to all subjects, it can be in relation to some. And a man is but poorly qualified for the business in which he engages, who is not able to do it, in all the cases of common occurrence, in that particular employment. It is of great importance, also, that we learn to think with *accuracy*. For, of what avail is it, if we go through an investigation, and arrive at a conclusion, if that conclusion proves erroneous? All action, founded upon such a conclusion, must be erroneous also; and either be of no avail, or positively injurious. *Quickness* of thought is also of great importance. For, successful action often depends upon the present moment. If the operations of our minds are slow, the favorable moment will often be past; and our correct conclusions will come, only to fill us with unavailing regret, when they are too late to be of any use. Which of us cannot recollect very many occasions, when a greater quickness of thought might have secured good which is lost, or prevented evil which has come, because our minds were too tardy in their operations? We need also to learn to think *closely*, and with fixed and continued attention. No considerable amount of valuable knowledge can be acquired without this. The mind that is capable of but a momentary attention to a subject, and is easily diverted by every trifle, must be incapable of going through with any labored investigation, and be liable to perpetual mistakes in the conclusions it forms.

2. It is not only necessary to learn to think, but to learn to obtain *materials* for thought. Those materials, indeed, lie around us in great abundance. The ground we tread on, the air we breathe

the heaven above us; every herb, and every stone, and every tree; every fowl that flies in the air, every fish that swims in the waters, every beast that roams the forest, and every creeping thing, that creeps upon the earth, is rich in materials for thought. Man, with a body fearfully and wonderfully made, and a mind capable of elevated attainments and noble actions; all nature, indeed, is full of these materials. But these things lie unnoticed and neglected by those who have not learned to think. To a child, indeed, they are objects of interest, and awaken inquiry. But where there is none to direct his investigations, and to satisfy his curiosity, and he is put off with an answer which forbids inquiry; where he is told that his questions are foolish, or that what he asks cannot be known, his mind sinks down into a stupid inanity, or employs itself with empty trifles, or in seeking animal gratifications which stupify it still more. Till, at length, those objects around him, which are so wonderful in themselves, so interesting in their relations, and so well adapted to furnish pleasant and profitable employment to an intelligent mind, come to be regarded with total indifference; and seem to attract as little attention from him, as they do from the ox he drives, or the horse he rides. Now, one end which should be kept in view, in every course of education, is, to awaken attention, and direct it to its proper objects; to lead the pupil to take notice of what he sees, and search after the reason *why;* to collect facts, and put them together, and trace their consequences. He should be taught to observe everything around him, and everything within him; and be encouraged to hope, that, if he should not be able to know all he might desire to know, in relation to everything he sees, he may hope to be able so far to explore the field of science, as to furnish himself with abundance of delightful employment, and acquire treasures of useful knowledge far surpassing in value the wealth of the Indies.

3. It is necessary to learn to *communicate* our thoughts to each other by speaking, writing, and reading. To know the meaning of words, their orthography and true pronunciation, and their arrangement in sentences, so as to express our ideas with clearness, strength and harmony, and have a clear perception of the meaning of others, so as to be able to read their composition with propriety, are very desirable attainments. And though some knowledge of reading, speaking and composing, is very common, yet a good knowledge of them is rare. Of what use will it be to others that we have learned to think, if we know not how to communicate our thoughts? And how can we communicate them to others, unless we know what language will be intelligible to them? A chaste and manly style is that which suits a train of solid and useful thought. High sounding expressions and tawdry ornaments are better suited to disguise the want of thought, and to amuse those

who are delighted with nothing but *noise*. But if we have anything to communicate adapted to do good to ourselves or others, we shall wish to make our sentiments accurately understood and deeply felt, by those we address. Learning to think, is indeed the first step towards learning to compose. For if we have solid and useful thoughts, there will be little difficulty in giving them utterance. Yet it is obvious that there is a vast difference in the mode of communicating the same ideas. And a tolerable acquaintanc with the principles of grammar, and the rules of composition and criticism, will give its possessor great advantage, in this respect, over one who is ignorant of them.

4. It is important to acquire habits of *patient* and *persevering application*. Few things, of any importance, are accomplished by a single effort, however great or well directed. But small powers continually exerted, for a length of time, have accomplished wonders. What impression can a single drop of water make upon stone? Yet a continual dropping, will, in time, wear away the hardest marble. What is called *genius*, may, indeed, like the electric fluid, dazzle by its sudden coruscations. But, as the steady light of the smallest taper is better for all useful purposes than the fitful glare of the lightning, so the steady application and untiring assiduity of small talents will accomplish more, in the end, for the benefit of the world, than all that was ever accomplished by the occasional efforts of the greatest geniuses. Besides, if genius were sufficient, without application, the great mass of mankind are not geniuses. And it is the great mass who are to be benefited by systems of education. How often does the impatient pupil say he cannot do it, when but a small effort is requisite? And how deep an injury he sustains, if he is suffered, on the one hand, to abandon his work in despair; or if, on the other, his teacher performs it for him? Let him *try*; and if he fails once, let him *try again*. Give him help enough to prevent total discouragement, but not so much as to supersede the exercise of his own powers. Would you teach your child to swim, you must throw him into water beyond his depth. But you must not leave him to sink, nor yet carry him along the surface with your own hand. You must give him just enough assistance to keep his head above water, and let his own efforts perform the rest. Habits of patient and persevering application are necessary to success in any kind of useful employment, as well as in the acquisition of knowledge; and one great end to be aimed at, should ever be, to form these habits, and to train the pupil so that he shall never be discouraged while a useful object is in view, and a single effort can be made.

We have, then, these ends to be aimed at, in every course of education, *to learn to think;—to learn to find materials for thought;*

to learn to express our thoughts;—and to acquire habits of patient and persevering application. These points being settled, they afford us some conclusions of great practical importance.

By reference to these principles, we can judge of the comparative merit of different systems of education. That is the best system which is best adapted to secure these ends. Children must be taught to think. And how is this end to be attained? Not by repeating, parrot like, the words of their *books*, without ever inquiring what they mean. Not by reciting from memory rules which they do not understand, and being praised for the accuracy of their recollection, while they know not how to apply in practice a single principle. Not by loading the mind with a confused mass of facts, like articles of lumber piled up in a ware room, without any order. Not by leading the pupil through a set of mechanical operations, which deceive him with correct results; but in obtaining which, reason has had as little to do, as it has in the movements of a steam-engine, or the operations of a power loom. They must be taught to reason on every subject, and never to be satisfied till they know *why* any assertion is made, or any conclusion adopted. They must begin with principles which are perfectly intelligible, and never advance a single step, till they see firm ground to set their feet on. Why are there so few good readers? Because children are taught to pronounce words, without any knowledge of their meaning. If they were taught to inquire the meaning of every word, and were required to read just as they would express themselves in animated conversation, we should not hear them read with so much monotony, with such measured cadence, with such a drawling, lifeless sing-song. I have never yet seen a suitable book for young beginners; one that united sufficient interest in the matter, with sufficient plainness and simplicity of style. Some friend of little children ought to make such a one. Why is it that so large a portion of our young people, who leave school at the age of sixteen or eighteen, are so poorly qualified to keep accounts, or perform the most common arithmetical calculations? There must be an error in the mode of their instruction. They are suffered to '*cypher through the book*,' as they term it, and to think they know it all, when, perhaps, they have seldom been asked the reason for a single operation. What wonder is it then, if, when a real business transaction is presented, they know not where to begin, or what to do? There must be a reform in these things. Children must be taught to understand what they study. They must learn to *think*. I would not make them so exclusively intellectual, as to be like the mathematician, who on reading the immortal work of Milton, asked, 'what does all this *prove*?' as if there could be nothing to admire, because it was not mathemetical demonstration. But I would

not have them imbibe the notion that there can be any such thing as correct taste without thought, or a capacity to relish the beauties of such a writer, without drinking largely at the fountains of useful knowledge.

The same principles will assist us in forming a judgment of the qualifications which are necessary for a teacher. He must have learned to think. If he has not learned to think himself, how can he teach others to think? It is not sufficient that he has a mechanical acquaintance with the books he is expected to teach. He must understand them. And he must understand the subjects of which they treat. It is not sufficient that he knows the rules of arithmetic by rote, and can perform the operations which they direct; he should be able to explain *why* such directions are given, and to lead his pupils to discover, from the nature of the question proposed, what ought to be done to solve it. It is not sufficient that he can make himself intelligible to those who already understand the subject, but that he should know how to accommodate himself to the capacity of those who know nothing of it. Some teachers seem to have forgotten the steps by which their own knowledge was acquired, and to be incapable of helping young learners over the same difficulties, to surmount which they once needed help from others. The ability to teach a child how to think, is a rare attainment: and requires much knowledge of the human mind, and much practical acquaintance with the gradual development of the infantile faculties. It requires a patience which nothing can wear out, an evenness and mildness of temper which nothing can disturb, and a desire to do good which no discouragements can repress. Perfection cannot, indeed, be expected; but these qualifications must exist, in some good degree, in every individual who is fit to be a teacher.

We may also perceive the importance of proceeding with a due degree of *slowness*, in every branch of study. Sufficient time should be taken to learn accurately what is attempted to be learned at all. Pupils are usually impatient to get forward; and many parents are equally impatient to have them. And the success of the teacher is too often estimated by the rapidity with which he advances his pupils. But it is not the extent of the surface which is skimmed over, that makes a scholar. He must learn to think, — to think closely, and accurately; and acquire the habit of thorough investigation. But the importance of this is too little regarded. It is thought that the pupil *must* advance rapidly, or he is learning nothing. In his hurry to get forward, he cannot stop to think. And when he makes mistakes, he cannot stop to correct them. And thus habits of inaccuracy are contracted, which often cleave to him through life, to his incalculable injury. The public mind needs to be in-

formed on this point. Parents need to be reminded that habits of accuracy are of far more importance than rapid progress. And indeed, that *real* progress towards the great end of education, cannot be made any farther than such habits are acquired. Particular encouragement should be given to those teachers who will make their pupils go slow, rather than to those who will make them advance rapidly. And the combined influence of parents and teachers, aided by public sentiment, should be effectually exerted to convince learners of the necessity of taking time to be exactly right in everything; that even little things cannot be safely neglected, because the great sum of life is made up of little things; and that the habitual neglect of these will infallibly lead to the neglect of the greatest things; and that unless they can be made to feel the importance of entire accuracy, the great ends of education will fail of being attained.

If the views here expressed are correct, it is evident where the work of reformation needs to begin. We complain that our youth are growing up vain, and thoughtless, and superficial, fond of dissipation, bold and forward, and self sufficient, and impatient of parental restraint. We complain that they have no taste for what is useful, but a strong passion for show; that home is irksome to them, and the most necessary employments of life disgusting; that the tendency of the best education we can give them is to make them feel above the most useful occupations. But we should cease our complaints. It is *we* that have done it. We have trained them for this, and can expect nothing else. The error has begun in their infancy. Instead of allowing them to fix their attention upon any object that has seemed to attract it, long enough to obtain one clear idea, we have thought they must be hurried from object to object for perpetual diversion. When they have begun to inquire into the nature of surrounding objects, and to ask the reason of things, we have put them off with a foolish answer, laughed at them for their simple questions, or repressed the spirit of inquiry with a frown. When they were sent to school, we have compelled them to pore over what they did not understand, till they hated the sight of a book; or, to encourage them to proceed, we have flattered their vanity, and taught them to labor for praise. We have sought to make everything easy, by abridgments and compends without number, till they are deceived into the belief that they are acquainted with the whole circle of the sciences, when in truth they have learned but little more than a few technical terms. We have taught them to consider of primary importance those things which are merely adapted for show; and left them to infer that the great end of life is to be flattered and admired. What wonder is it, then, if the consequences of which we complain, are everywhere to be found?

How can home be agreeable to those who have not learned to think, and who can find no materials for thought? How can the quiet duties of life possess attractions for those who have been taught that nothing is so desirable as display? If we wish a reform, we must begin at the foundation. We must make a radical change in the system. We must teach our children to think. We must train them to habits of investigation. We must teach them to find materials for thought. We must open before them the exhaustless stores of knowledge, and teach them to value its treasures. A passion for knowledge will exclude the passion for dissipation. And its gratification will be cheaper, as well as its consequences happier. When they shall have learned enough to discover how little they know, they will begin to be modest and diffident. When they shall have learned to value every acquirement according to its utility, they will despise that which is merely adapted to display; and they will recover their respect for the useful occupations of life. And when our children and youth shall have learned that the mind is the noblest part of the man, and that the pleasures derived from the acquisition of knowledge are sweeter than those which are found in the gratifications of the animal nature, there will be a change in their pursuits, most happy in its character, and happy in its effects.

The remarks which have been made will also enable us to see the use of Lyceums. They are intended and adapted to promote the desirable change which has been mentioned. It is their object to teach their members to think, to furnish materials for thought, and to aid in the communication of our thoughts. They are designed to collect together the lovers of useful knowledge, and afford them advantages for mutual improvement. The older pupils in the schools, the youth who have ceased to attend school, those who are engaged in teaching, and those in active life, may here meet together, and combine their efforts for the promotion of a common object. And that object is one, as all must perceive, of the greatest importance. Our aim is not merely to improve ourselves, though that should be sufficient to stimulate us to unwearied effort. Benevolence takes a wider range, and aims at loftier objects. As far as our influence may extend, we aim at the general improvement of education. We desire to rouse the public attention. We wish to inform and direct the public sentiment. We wish the great ends of education to be better understood, and their importance to be more deeply felt. We wish to see old and young, parents and children, teachers and pupils, all engaged to elevate the standard of instruction and more extensively to diffuse its blessings. We wish to see all the citizens of our great republic well instructed in their rights and their duties, and well prepared to enjoy their rights, and discharge their

duties. We wish to see them too wise to be deceived by designing and crafty men, and too virtuous to give their support to the unworthy under any circumstances. Then may we hope that our liberties will be preserved, and our inestimable institutions be handed down as a rich inheritance to succeeding generations.

Art. III. — On the General Principles of Instruction.

By George P. Macculloch, of New Jersey.

Read before the American Lyceum, at New York, May, 1833.

[Those of our readers who are familiar with our pages will recollect at once that we have expressed opinions highly favorable to some of the practical methods described in the following essay, while we have strongly opposed some of its principles. We have of en expressed our willingness to open our pages to any views of our subject, founded upon experience and maintained by argument, when they do not involve sectarian views of religion, and are not opposed to morality. We wish this essay may call forth some of the advocates of minute instruction. Some remarks on the subject will be found in future articles, prepared for another purpose.]

The territory of Knowledge is an immeasurable region, traversed by endless paths. To pursue one or two of these, as far as it has hitherto been trodden, perhaps to advance a few steps beyond the last traveller, and leave some traces for the guidance of our successors, — such seems the utmost limits attainable by the brevity of life, and the feebleness of human intellect. Inadequate as are our means for a full and general survey, we act as if possessed of surplus power; and much ingenuity seems to have been misapplied in creating artificial difficulties in every avenue, or in compelling the traveller to retard his pace, by carrying some fantastic encumbrance. Whether any of these hindrances can be removed is an inquiry congenial to your own patriotic society, and promoting each of its benevolent purposes. A plain, matter-of-fact essay, requires then no apology; premising only that my views result from a *personal experience* of many years, spent in instructing youth. I shall advance no theory, upon which I have not acted with success; nor offer any advice, which I have not ascertained to be beneficial.

In America, the design of education is radically different from that which prevails in Europe. With us, it is to cultivate some millions of minds; to confer the grace of letters upon the rugged brow of industry; to produce a bustling but intelligent race, fitted rather to fell the forest than to pipe pastorals under its shade. A few gifted souls, indeed, may soar above this intellectual level; but

souls such as these, rise in every country and condition; nor should a system of education be predicated upon the solitary exceptions to a general rule. Let us take care of the multitude; the happy few will take care of themselves. In Europe the very reverse of all this occurs. There, the stream of knowledge is obstructed, and those only can slake their thirst who can afford to spend a fortune or dedicate a life to its pursuit. There, a man loiters at a University, while here, at the same age, he would be a husband, a father, the head of a family, battling for independence, station, professional eminence or public distinction. The European system, it is true, affords the best chance of discovering, once in a century, some prodigy in Metaphysics or Criticism; for which chance of discovery, all who are educated are drilled, as methodically, and minutely, as if the succeeding generation were destined to be Pedagogues. Under such training, a few splendid lights must break forth; boys of middling talent may escape; but the weak are crushed under a farrago of what they neither understand nor desire to understand, and by due perseverance become stupified. A Metaphysician and Critic, or even a Mathematician and Astronomer, thus cost a price which we, of the New World, cannot afford to pay. We court no prodigy beyond that of an entire nation, some twelve or twenty millions of minds, all advancing, nearly abreast, in the career of liberal, practical and useful learning. We have no time to waste, as in Europe, in marching and countermarching upon the outskirts of what we desire to learn; we must come, without circumlocution, to the point, and gain a victory while they are buckling on a cumbrous armor.

It has been well said that no man can educate another. The utmost that any teacher ought to attempt, is to sketch an outline, which the future assiduity and genius of his pupil can alone fill with the lights, and shades, and glowing colors of knowledge. Whatever we acquire permanently and usefully, is self-taught. The schoolmaster is then a mere sketcher of outlines. In America, he is allowed only five or six years for that task. The child is often translated to some money-getting employment by the time he is seventeen. Now the question I would propound is; should this precious interval be wasted in touching, and retouching, and finishing minute and insignificant parts, or in giving a faint, but general and grand idea of the whole panorama of knowledge? Let the attention of the boy be pointed solely towards leading principles and interesting facts. By the former he will learn where to locate whatever he shall subsequently acquire; by the latter he will gain a relish for solid attainments. Whenever future circumstances may render it necessary, or leisure and developed tastes shall make agreeable, he thus possesses within himself, the prepared faculty

of prosecuting vigorous research into any given province of science or literature.

'But you recommend us to teach superficially. Scholars must be well grounded; there should be a good foundation; whatever is taught, ought to be taught thoroughly.' These are conventional phrases, which are frequently adopted, but to which it would be difficult to affix any precise meaning. They sound well, however, and why should not academic cant be as sonorous as any other species? Let us scrutinize the matter for ourselves.

If all that mankind learn, up to the age of seventeen, can be simplified and abbreviated one third, the progress of youth will of course be carried one third further; and this may very easily be accomplished, by lopping off useless technicalities, tedious work of memory, and a vain parade of elements, which clog our scholastic operations.

Can this be effected? It can, and easily, for I myself have done it; and in explaining how, we shall commence *ab ovo*, by teaching a child to read English.

The A B C is our initiative tormentor, requiring much time and herculean effort, altogether thrown away. Some years ago I perused, with much curiosity and little faith, a French book upon the art of teaching to read without the alphabet. The Symbolical Primer, published in America, seeming well adapted to the method recommended, an experiment was made in my family upon a child of three years and two months old. At the average rate of one lesson a day, it became capable, within ten months, of reading intelligibly and fluently, any newspaper. I mean not to insinuate that the child could have imbibed the meaning of the President's proclamation, but merely that it could have conveyed to its audience the whole of that document. The same result could not have been obtained from the same child, by the usual routine, without several months of additional labor. Here then, upon the threshold of education, there is room for great economy of time and effort.

After reading, the next step of a legitimate course is directed to English Grammar, a subject which shall be touched with much deference; for although a pupil of the Edinburgh High School and College, I must in candor avow that I have never perused, or even perceived the utility of perusing a full grown grammar.

There are a few primary rules, fundamental in all languages, and therefore derived from nature itself. Syntax only presents amplifications or exceptions to these maxims, which pervade all oral communication. These primary rules should be applied first to our vernacular speech; a boy understands their import best when not loaded by the embarrassment of foreign words; and this simple

all his actions and thoughts; that he would see everything from the proper point of view; know where to lay hold on a subject, what conclusions it will bear; — that the deepest investigation would call for but little effort; and that reason would become the sole guide and arbiter of his enterprises.

In no point, however, did I feel a deeper interest than in the possibility of conducting the exercises of every individual without the assistance of explanation. The want of them, I then believed, had often retarded my own progress; and although I had known a few individuals who could advance without them, I could not but look upon them as singular exceptions. My first observations all tended to confirm me in this belief; and I heard from day to day, the same applications for assistance, to which I had been accustomed in other schools. There was, however, but one answer for all; for a large portion of our scholars had early imbibed the true spirit of the method. 'We learned it,' they would say, 'by ourselves: read your book attentively, study it with care, and you will find the clue to its meaning as easily as we.'

I remember one instance in particular, that made a deep impression on my mind at the time. The young Portuguese, of whom I have already spoken, was one evening exceedingly perplexed by the minims and crotchets in his music. He called on every one of us for assistance, but none of those who had gained a knowledge of them by hard exertion, were disposed to communicate it thus easily to him. He rose at length from his seat and was closing his book in despair, when one advised him to make another trial, playing the air, carefully, and observing the notes and his hands while playing. He had scarcely played three bars in this manner, when the light flashed upon him. No one could have seen the smile of triumph that sprang to his lips, and have continued to believe that explanations are an assistance to the scholar, or difficulties an insurmountable barrier.

This feeling of confidence was in a few months generally spread throughout the school. Excited by what he had seen others accomplish, and encouraged by the recollection of what himself had done, each boy labored with assiduity at his own task. Whenever an obstacle occurred, he tasked all his energies to overcome it. If unsuccessful at the first trial, he returned to it again; and continued his exertions until the victory was secured. Thus the most timid daily gained confidence in their own powers, and the same circumstances which in other schools discourage and retard the scholar, became, in this, his greatest incentive to industry.

of prosecuting vigorous research into any given province of science or literature.

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There are a few primary rules, fundamental in all languages, and therefore derived from nature itself. Syntax only presents amplifications or exceptions to these maxims, which pervade all oral communication. These primary rules should be applied first to our vernacular speech; a boy understands their import best when not loaded by the embarrassment of foreign words; and this simple

outline of universal grammar forms the sum total of all that need be taught of English Grammar. If after the perusal of classic authors, and conversation, such as it is uniformly found, in *tolerably* well informed society, the pupil is still prone to gross grammatical error, he is most certainly a subject upon whom classical and literary refinement would be thrown away. Minute errors may indeed be detected, but who rejects figs, because he has viewed their farina in a solar microscope? True it is, the science of language involves many curious discussions and debatable positions, invaluable to an acute philologist. Let Amateurs chase their butterfly through an hundred folio tomes; we have no right to smile, for De Gustibus, &c. But the business of national education is not to foster verbal criticism, but to create men of capabilities for actual business, blended with a taste for literature or science, to be extended and cultivated as circumstances may permit.

A premature exhibition of Etymology, Syntax and Prosody, in all their terrific details, is an unfailing prescription for making a boy nauseate his school, his master, and his book; and when these leaden accomplishments are acquired, they conduct not to a single useful end. No nation has struggled as much as the French to regulate its language. Regal prerogative has even been extended over preposition and adverb; and the Royal Academy enacted a code for better regulating the chit-chat of that colloquial people. All the classic authors stand accordingly convicted of high treason against the *Norma scribendi*; it has been satisfactorily demonstrated that we can neither laugh with Moliere, nor weep over Racine, without becoming *Participes Criminis*, subject to the penalties of contempt of lawful authority. Boys should be guarded against this mechanical estimate of Literature.

The only use of grammar is to dissect language into its elementary parts; to ascertain the reciprocal bearing of these parts upon each other; and by their combination under a few plain precepts, to elicit or convey sentiment with precision. Construing this definition in its utmost simplicity, I have taught grammar, almost solely by familiar examples, always appealing to the judgment, never to the memory; and expending not more than fifteen or twenty lessons of a quarter of an hour each. Nor have I reason to regret this summary process. One of the most prominent public speakers; and another, one of the finest periodical writers of your state, have both learned all they know of English Grammar, while sitting on my knee in the garden.

Initiated in a slender stock of general rules, the boy proceeds to foreign languages. The usual routine is to commence by Latin; my method has been to prefer French. Latin pronunciation is entirely conventional; every nation modelling upon its own alpha-

bet; while in French the standard is fixed; conformity is indispensable; and not to be acquired by rigid organs. If acquired at all, it must be in early youth. A knowledge of Latin assists the French student no more, than a knowledge of French assists the Latin tyro; and where both are to be taught, the customary precedence ought to be inverted in favor of the modern.

The scholar having already imbibed some faint notion of Etymology and Syntax, applies them to his new study; he learns his articles, verbs, &c; reads, and especially writes, copious exercises; guided only by a very few rules on the leading and diomatic peculiarities. *In no language should these rules occupy a slip of paper of more than six or eight inches in depth.*

To imbibe the genius of any language is the work of time; and a perusal of its best authors, is the only means.

Following this method, he must be a dull boy, who cannot, within six months, and without a neglect of other pursuits, acquire any of the modern dialects, adding perhaps two extra months for the German.

To the objection that this method is entirely superficial, I shall only answer that a boy of fourteen, after thus learning French, was sent to finish his education in Paris. His guardian informed me, that within two months of his arrival, and in an Academy of two hundred scholars, he carried off the first prize for an essay in that language.

Latin, subjected to the same regimen, may be acquired with nearly the same facility, diminishing the length of the written exercise, and increasing the reading. All time spent upon Prosody, with the exception perhaps of scanning a few Hexameters, is a total loss. It can have for its object only the manufacture of poetry, or to establish a correct syllabic measurement. The first of these has justly been hooted out of existence; the last can be attained instinctively, wherever Latin is read with propriety. If gifted with a tolerably correct ear, no boy uses false quantities, who has been habituated to hear just recitation. If he be not so gifted, drill him as you will, the graces of versification are inexpressible to his voice. But how, it may be demanded, is propriety in the enunciation of syllables to be maintained? How are future generations to quote Horace in all his harmony of longs and shorts, if we suffer the important rules of prosody to lie forgotten? Let our colleges be the temples, and our professors the priesthood for feeding this vestal flame; but let not our youth be tormented, and their time wasted, upon acquirements which a few years must obliterate; which are utterly inapplicable, either for use or for ornament, to their destined pursuits; and which concern only those who eat their bread by the '*Literæ Humaniores.*' It is much to

be doubted, whether Roman gentlemen were in the habit of scanning Horace, more than we measure feet in the Odes of Gray.

In the whole business of education, we are apt to look more at forms and precedents than at the practical result to be attained by our pupil. This error pervades not only our operations in language, but the concomitant fields of Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, &c. Geography, for example, is frequently clogged with an encumbrance of History, Politics, and Statistics; affairs quite alien to the subject in hand, in which the juvenile student can feel no interest until maturer years; and which, at a proper time, he will follow up with relish and profit. Our Mathematical instructions, in like manner, assume a form too speculative; the youth is confused in a labyrinth of elements, and throws down his Euclid in disgust, because he perceives no tangible application amidst the chaos of lines and angles. Let the boy watch a mason with his ten foot pole, staking out the corners of a house, and be shown that this proceeding is derived from the 47th proposition of Euclid. He will open the book with curiosity and ardor, and like Bonaparte at the *Pons Lodi*, pass at one single energetic effort the redoubtable *Pons Asinorum*.

A volume of such illustrations might be compiled, all showing how our whole academic system is overwhelmed by trifling minutiæ, which impede progress and melt from the memory, leaving only the bitter regret of time and effort expended in vain. A brief outline of elements, impressed upon the judgment by judicious examples, will be rapidly and indelibly acquired; if the master will only employ, in illustration, one tenth part of the labor which the scholar wastes in listless repetitions of lessons learned by rote. But it is much easier to compel an urchin to sit still and con his task, than to clear his path and lead him onward.

I shall refrain from farther elucidation of the doctrine which it is my intention to inculcate; for as Montesquieu remarks, it is better to induce men to think, than compel them to read.

The improvement of Education stands first among the objects of your philanthropic Institution; and I could not better respond to the honored call made upon me, than by selecting for this essay a topic to which I have devoted many years of undivided attention. The views were, at the time, novel; they may subsequently have been adopted and improved by my successors. Such as they are, I offer them as a tribute of respect to the Lyceum, and a sort of posthumous bequest from a retired schoolmaster to the succeeding generation of public instructors.

Art. IV. — Method of Jacotot.

By George W. Greene.

[We have, in a former volume, given the outlines of the system of instruction, devised by Jacotot, in the hope that some one of similar spirit, would be led to employ and test it in this country. We have heard of but one experiment, that of Mr Guillou in Philadelphia; and as we have not unfortunately received the books sent to us by that gentleman, we are unable to give any particulars, or to describe the works he has prepared. We are happy to find that Mr Greene, who recently lectured on the subject before the American Institute, has opened a school on this plan, in Providence, and is preparing an introductory work in reference to it. We have been gratified to receive from him the following account of its origin, we hope introductory to some further details of his own observations and experience in reference to it. That it is not one of those royal roads to learn by 'a short and easy method' which are now so popular, will soon be discovered.]

Every appeal that is made to public attention in favor of a new system of instruction, should be supported by argument and facts. We must seek the first in a minute examination of its principles; the last, in the actual results of its application. A simple exposition of principles will not give the conviction of its practical utility, neither can we judge of its adaptation to our own wants by a knowledge of results, however exact and detailed; for, without experiment, we are in danger of adopting principles that cannot be reduced to practice; and without a knowledge of principles, we cannot embrace the full extent of our discoveries.

These two descriptions of proof have been brought to support the method of Jacotot, and its advocates appeal with equal confidence to the examination of its principles, and to the observation of the results that have followed their application.

The method of Jacotot owes its origin to one of those single trains of circumstances which have so often led, step by step, from a simple experiment to the most important discoveries. Its founder, J. Jacotot, is a native of Dijon, in France. A large portion of his life has been devoted to literary pursuits, and he has filled with distinction different chairs in the colleges of France. But the political changes that have driven so many Frenchmen from their homes, compelled him, after the restoration, to seek in exile an asylum from the espionage of the police. He retired to Belgium, and in 1818 was called to the chair of French lecturer in the University of Louvain. But here a new difficulty awaited him. His instruction indeed was confined to his own language, but many of his scholars spoke no French; and he was equally ignorant of their language, the Flemish. There were a few, however, among them who had some knowledge of French, and with these for interpreters, Jacotot entered boldly upon his labors. He first directed them to learn,

by heart, a part of the first book of Telemachus. An old Dutch translation served as a guide to the same, and a species of examination was carried on partly by questions, addressed through the medium of his interpreters, and partly by making his pupils point out those parts of the translation which corresponded to certain parts of the text.

In this manner, the first six pages were soon learned. The remainder of the book, and the six following were then read and narrated. A more direct channel of communication was opened by degrees, between Jacotot and his scholars. They extended their knowledge of words from day to day, and each new lesson was also an advance towards correctness. In a short time they became so familiar with the language of Telemachus that they would narrate in it all the events and details of the book. 'Why can they not,' said Jacotot, 'apply the same language to the expression of their own ideas?' He told them to write; and they composed upon the various subjects of the book, and corrected their pieces by comparing their own usage of the language, with that of Fenelon, acquiring thus, the beauties of style, while they collected phrases and studied grammatical construction.

Encouraged by this success, Jacotot soon applied the same method to the study of Latin; and succeeding also in this, he directed his attention to drawing, music, and the mathematics. He had, until then, believed that explanatory instruction was essential to the scholar in every department of study, and he had long supported that belief by his private instruction, and his public lectures. But he had now, without a single explanation, conducted his scholars with a more rapid step than ever before, to a thorough knowledge in various branches. Individuals had often accomplished this; but in public instruction, it was a discovery, and he announced it as such to the world. Better perhaps would it have been for his individual repose, had he confined his system within the limits of his own lecture room; for mingled with the expressions of admiration and assurances of gratitude, came a torrent of calumny and of reproach. He was accused of quackery and imposition; the schools established under his direction were withdrawn, and he was visited with the sole object of searching out his errors, and exposing them to the public. Results that could not be denied were said to be unfairly procured; and when by chance, the indolence of a scholar defeated his views, the failure was attributed to the instructor and the system. It excited no little animosity among modern inventors of 'easy' and superficial and short methods, because it required close study, thorough investigation, and attention to minute details; and thus stood opposed to all their schemes.

To these clamors he opposed no other answer than the results of his experiment. From the moment of the discovery he had ceased to give lessons as a private instructor, and he assiduously labored to perfect and to extend his system without the view of any reward beyond the consciousness of doing good. Public attention, already excited, soon became riveted with intense interest upon the progress of the experiment. Classes were formed among the troops of the Dutch king;* some from the common soldiers, who were instructed in the rudiments of their native language, and some from the officers who engaged in the higher branches of mathematics. Parents† sent their private tutors to Louvain that they might learn from Jacotot how to conduct the education of their children by the principles of his method; and committees were appointed by various societies, interested in the progress of education, to inquire into the principles of the method, and investigate its results. Their reports were in turn laid before the public, and brought their concurring testimony to the importance of the discovery.

The success of the method, however, was still ascribed by some‡ to the individual superiority of Jacotot. His long experience as a teacher, his conciliating and animating manners, his skill in forming questions that should suggest their own answers; but above all, the warm interest in the success of his system, spread like the electric shock from himself to those around him. All these circumstances were said to have a large share in procuring the results which he persevered in attributing to the method alone. This question, which argument could never have decided, was soon satisfactorily determined by a full experiment.

A school was opened at Antwerp by M. de S——; Jacotot's success in *language* had been most admired; but de S —— obtained equal results in the most abstruse departments of mathematics. Other schools were rapidly formed in other parts of the country; one was established in Paris by the Society of Methods; and its venerable president, de Lasteyrie, published an account of the system. At the same time the public press poured forth a flood of reports and letters,§ and descriptions from the pens of private individuals, and by the authority of government and of public societies.

It could not be expected that all these should agree. Few men arrive at the same conclusions upon any subject, but they always differ when interest or prejudice colors the medium of their observations. We find, therefore, in some of these reports the warmest expression of approbation applied to certain parts of the method, while others are as freely condemned. Some applauded it

* See a correspondence between M. Jacotot and Prince Frederic, &c. &c. in 1827.
† Casimir Perier. ‡ See Kinker's report, 11, 12 pages. § Report of Boutony and Bandouir. — Letters of the Duc de Lève, &c. &c.

as a method for the study of language, while others were astonished at the rapidity with which it leads to a knowledge of science. But while the dispute was thus increasing in warmth, and daily engaging new combatants in the field, the method itself went on rapidly, extending, and procuring for the unprejudiced of both sides, the means of a rational decision. In 1829, there was but one school in Paris that followed the system of Jacotot; in 1831, there were more than ten. Several were opened in the provincial towns of France; and what was still dearer to the benevolent heart of 'the founder,' the father, and the poor peasant, eagerly adopted a system, which made each the instructor of his children.

Toward the close of the autumn of 1829, the writer of this article became a member of the school of M. de S——. It was my principal object to ascertain the truth of the statements that I had heard, and see how far the practice of the method agreed with its theory. Without apprising M. de S—— of the view which had led me to his institution, I applied myself, particularly, to observe the progress and mode of study of my fellow scholars.

The first branch of study that attracted my attention was the drawing class. A room on the first floor had been set apart for drawing and music. In a niche on one side of this, stood a bust of the Apollo, around which the scholars were arranged in a semicircle. Each represented, upon his paper, the view that his position gave him, and thus beginners as well as proficients were obliged to commence with a front, or half, or side view, according to the position that each had taken.

Some of this class had been studying for several weeks; and their drawings no longer exhibited the irregularities of a first attempt. One of them had completed a fine head of the Apollo, and was drawing another, from a description in his Telemachus. He had, in the course of his study, composed a description of Apollo from the bust: he had now to reverse the exercise, and from the written description, compose a head. Every part of the work was justified as he proceeded; and he was required to account for the style of the features, the expression, the shade, the arrangement of the hair.

Others had never used the pencil before; and odd enough were their first efforts. They knew not where to begin, or what to do; but sat gazing alternately upon the bust and the paper, in utter despair. At length, however, a line would be drawn either for the forehead or the nose; and, indeed, when they attempted to compare it with the model, it was generally found to answer equally well for either. But after a few more trials something like a contour would be formed, and the scholar would generally rise with increased confidence from his first essay. By degrees the task be-

came easier: the form of the face, which seemed at first to rest on the eye alone, became pictured upon the memory, and the hand grew flexible and obedient to the will: instead of a glance at the bust and a stroke on the paper, a full line would be completed before the student turned back to his bust: and in place of the unintelligible scrawls that I had seen in the commencement, features, shade, and expression itself, soon rose under the pencils of my companions.

Nor was the progress of the other classes less surprising. Geography, history, the mathematics, and above all, the French language, were taught with all the variety of exercises that distinguishes the method. In this last, there was at first, a far greater difference of progress among the scholars, than I had yet observed. Some would commit their task to memory with the utmost readiness; while others could scarcely proceed beyond the first sentence; and a few actually hesitated in the first line. Some would develope an idea with great ease, or draw from the examination of a few facts, many striking and just remarks. Others, on the contrary, would find but little to say concerning the same facts, and would distinguish, in a full description, nothing beyond the original thought. When called on to justify their pieces, the first would point out, without hesitation, the fact to which they were indebted for each idea, and arrange all their observations under the heads from which they were drawn; while the others could scarcely account for a single reflection, or tell why they had made one observation rather than another.

I thought, at first, that this was the result of natural distinctions; but I soon perceived that it might, with greater propriety, be traced to difference of attention. A young Portuguese, whose indolence had distinguished him even among the indolent, was by one of those changes in feeling which we often witness in boys, suddenly aroused to greater assiduity and more active exertion. A total change in his exercises followed this change in his feelings; his narrations became full and connected; his compositions more just and more extensive. Facts which had made no impression upon his mind, but a few weeks before, would now suggest new ideas, and lead to just reflections. The more he studied them, the more he found to observe; and if he changed his point of view, his subject, like the bust he drew from, presented a new aspect.

I had never, until that moment, felt how much good writing depends upon a careful examination of the subject: upon viewing it in every light, and subjecting it to every species of scrutiny. And I could not but think that even in the ordinary concerns of life this habit would secure the greatest advantages; that he who possessed it would find it spontaneously exerting its salutary influence upon

all his actions and thoughts; that he would see everything from the proper point of view; know where to lay hold on a subject, what conclusions it will bear; — that the deepest investigation would call for but little effort; and that reason would become the sole guide and arbiter of his enterprises.

In no point, however, did I feel a deeper interest than in the possibility of conducting the exercises of every individual without the assistance of explanation. The want of them, I then believed, had often retarded my own progress; and although I had known a few individuals who could advance without them, I could not but look upon them as singular exceptions. My first observations all tended to confirm me in this belief; and I heard from day to day, the same applications for assistance, to which I had been accustomed in other schools. There was, however, but one answer for all; for a large portion of our scholars had early imbibed the true spirit of the method. 'We learned it,' they would say, 'by ourselves: read your book attentively, study it with care, and you will find the clue to its meaning as easily as we.'

I remember one instance in particular, that made a deep impression on my mind at the time. The young Portuguese, of whom I have already spoken, was one evening exceedingly perplexed by the minims and crotchets in his music. He called on every one of us for assistance, but none of those who had gained a knowledge of them by hard exertion, were disposed to communicate it thus easily to him. He rose at length from his seat and was closing his book in despair, when one advised him to make another trial, playing the air, carefully, and observing the notes and his hands while playing. He had scarcely played three bars in this manner, when the light flashed upon him. No one could have seen the smile of triumph that sprang to his lips, and have continued to believe that explanations are an assistance to the scholar, or difficulties an insurmountable barrier.

This feeling of confidence was in a few months generally spread throughout the school. Excited by what he had seen others accomplish, and encouraged by the recollection of what himself had done, each boy labored with assiduity at his own task. Whenever an obstacle occurred, he tasked all his energies to overcome it. If unsuccessful at the first trial, he returned to it again; and continued his exertions until the victory was secured. Thus the most timid daily gained confidence in their own powers, and the same circumstances which in other schools discourage and retard the scholar, became, in this, his greatest incentive to industry.

Art. V. — Mechanical Instruction.

[We extract the following interesting article from the Sunday School Journal, a paper which we are gratified to find constantly recognizing the necessity of *education*, in the widest sense, as the basis of religious instruction. Since the public statement of our own affairs we have heard, with astonishment, that among the *hundred thousand teachers* and the *millions of friends* of Sunday Schools, connected with the Society by whom this interesting and able Journal is issued, there are not enough disposed to read on the subject to pay the expenses of its publication! The Journal of Science, the only scientific periodical of eminence, is sustained with difficulty; the Journal of Health which presented solid and useful information in a manner adapted to amuse and attract, has failed; while Blackwood's Magazine, and a host of ephemeræ, not worthy to be named with it, are flourishing. Is not the 'mechanical instruction,' exposed in the following article, one source of this distaste for everything solid, everything which requires theory? Are not the 'easy methods' of modern times, which involve no mental effort, contributing to the same result? Is the evil to be remedied by reducing religion, and science, and literature, and the principles and methods of education to such a diluted state, and infusing such spicy and savory ingredients, as shall gratify this infantile taste, and sustain this feeble form of mental action? In other words, is the taste to be *corrected*, by being *pampered?* And is it advisable to train up the rising generation to the same taste, by similar publications? Must our statesmen become demagogues, and our physicians quacks, and our authors, novelists and paragraph writers? Are there none who have resolution, and skill, and power, to unite and stem this torrent, and at least, prevent its overwhelming another generation? Is there no guilt resting on those who are swelling and driving on its current, merely to procure temporary fame or profit?]

'A parish minister' has given, in the British Magazine, a history of his experiments in education, which places in a strong light the advantage in all respects of making religious instruction a part of the elementary education of children. His descriptions are extremely natural, and will be recognised as true, on this side of the Atlantic.

'There was no school,' he says, 'in my parish when I first came there; and, as I heartily agreed with the many wise and excellent persons who are the advocates of the education of the lower classes, I determined to have a daily school at N———. I held a consultation with two or three of the principal residents in the parish, and we agreed that a subscription should be collected, a large room fitted up, and a schoolmistress engaged. I went my rounds through the parish to ask for subscriptions, and, though I had many objections to answer, I met with very few refusals. The school was established; a modest and intelligent young woman was sent for a month to a celebrated national school in the neighborhood to learn the system; her husband undertook the charge of the boys; and, to my great satisfaction, our schools began to flourish. The children were, of course, taught to repeat, and to repeat without a mistake, our admirable church catechism: and some explanation of the church catechism, infinitely more difficult to the comprehension of a child than the catechism itself. A good explanation certainly; but better suited to grown-up persons, and full

of hard long words. However, at our public examinations, all the parishioners who were present were highly gratified. The system had, we all agreed, been admirably pursued. Scarcely a mistake was made in repeating the printed answers to the printed questions, except by one or two inveterate dunces, whose countenances showed that there was something within which would resist most stubbornly the teaching of the most energetic master. The well-written and unblotted copy-books were handed about; and boy after boy, and girl after girl, passed before us, a sort of military file, holding up sideways their slates, on which sums or answers to questions in arithmetic were written down with astonishing readiness. The needle-work and knitting of the girls were pronounced to be beautifully executed, particularly a set of shirts which were made for my eldest son.

'The examination was concluded by a prayer and singing a hymn. The master, standing at the head of the school, gave the word of command, and, at the instant, every child dropped, as if shot, upon his knees; at another signal, every hand was folded and raised in the attitude of prayer; at a third signal, the head monitor commenced repeating the prayer. After the hymn had been sung, prizes were given to the children; and the master and mistress were highly complimented by myself and by the other visitors. Year after year passed away; the school still prospered; the examinations were still deemed satisfactory, and we continued to compliment the master and mistress till, I really believe, that it helped, among other causes, to spoil them, by filling them with an overweening conceit of themselves. Though humble and unpretending at first, they at last yielded to the general opinion, which had been so diligently urged upon them, that they were a blessing to the school and to the parish.'

This mechanical plan was prosperous, and thought to be complete, until the opportunity was presented of proving its practical effects. Were the children morally improved? The question was answered when the children became old enough to be put out to service.

'Without one exception, they disappointed our expectations. One was too high, in his own judgment of his abilities, for his place; he did not like manual labor, though a remarkably strong little fellow. Another ran away from his service, and did not make his appearance till some years after, broken down in health and spirits, to die in the poor house. A third was suspected of thieving. Of the girls, one very pleasing and very pretty girl was discovered to be a liar, whom nobody could trust. Such were some of the fruit of our school. At least, I now began to suspect that something was wrong, particularly when I remembered that, for some time past, I had heard complaints made that the school children, when out of school, were a 'most audacious set;' that, indeed, no one had ever known the children of the parish so disorderly or so insolent as they had lately become.'

These results brought the minister to reflection and self-reproach.

'I asked myself the question, What kind of instruction ought to be given in a school which is under the direction of a Christian minister? There could be but one answer, and that is, Christian instruction. But had not Christian instruction been given? was not the Catechism *taught?* was not the Bible read and *taught?* The memory had been exercised, the understanding awakened; but what had been done to interest the heart? to instruct, to edify, to affect the heart? to impress upon the heart those truths which are peculiarly written for making wise and holy, the ignorant *heart?* Judging from my own experience, I should suppose that the great error in the management of many of our parish schools is beginning to show itself. I will not call it an error in the system, but it is surely leaving the system without the spirit, which should quicken all its mechanical machinery. It is not enough to make the school a mere machine, working with mechanical correctness. The error is not in the system; for books of sacred instruction, above all, the Bible, are in the hands of the children, and all this pre-supposes, in like manner, that the book is held in the hand, that it may be taken into the heart, and the effects of it shine forth in the life and practice. No child should be allowed to think it possible that the lessons of holy scripture can be learned for any other reason than that they may reform the heart, and therefore the conduct.'

Art. VI. — Report of the American School Agents' Society.

[Concluded.]

[In our last number we published that part of the Report of the American School Agents' Society, which refers to its general operations, and the information obtained concerning schools in New England. We now insert the remainder.]

In *Rhode Island*, it appears from the Report of a Committee appointed for that purpose, there were in 1832 only 20,597 children to be found in any of the schools of that State; while the actual number of children between the ages of 5 and 15, according to the census was 22,041: and according to the best estimates, the number between 4 and 16, the usual ages of attending school, could not have been less than 25,000, probably 26,000. But, at 25,000, only, the number of those who are wholly uninstructed would be 4,403, or *one sixth* of the whole. It was also ascertained by the above mentioned Committee that *six sevenths* of the public schools in that State are continued only three months in the year. There

are, however, private schools in many places which are continued from three to six months in the year, while the public schools are discontinued.

In *New York*, according to the official Reports made to the Legislature, there are 508,878 children, between 5 and 15 years of age, of whom only 494,959 actually attend school; thus leaving about 14,000 children of a suituble age to attend school, without the means of instruction. This estimate does not include the city of New York, for in that alone it has been ascertained that there are 13,000 who are destitute; — an aggregate for the whole State of about 27,000 *officially reported*; and this too in a State whose common school system is deservedly regarded as the best in the United States. The agent finds reason to believe that the whole amount is not less than 50,000 to 80,000, including new counties and towns.

The following account is given by the agent of the state of schools in seven different counties which he visited.

'In visiting schools of this part of the State I found many of them in a miserable condition. Learned and leading men were giving their attention to higher institutions, and overlooking the common schools; and these primary places left altogether in the hands of the ignorant, the indifferent, and in many cases, the vicious and immoral. I found even ministers not giving that attention to the character of the teachers, and the condition of the schools, and the progress of the children which they might, and I hope will hereafter. I found but a very few schools that had suitable books, and many almost without books of any kind — school houses are often badly located and constructed — school meetings thinly attended and poorly conducted — conventions of teachers (except in two or three counties) had never been called — no correspondence between one town and another — no improvement made known or introduced. Lyceums have been established in a few towns in these counties, but they are poorly sustained and excite but little interest. There are few public libraries or cabinets.

'There are obvious causes for this state of things. Parents show a criminal indifference to the education of their children. They do not even coöperate with the teacher; and seldom excite a love of study or books, by their own example. They employ, very generally, teachers who are unqualified; and are unwilling to give a compensation which would secure better instructors. Cheapness and relationship are usually the most essential qualifications in an applicant. Most teachers taking the office of instructing as a temporary employment — a mere step to something more lucrative and honorable — without a love for their business or a natural aptitude to teach — their schools are always unpleasant, and the children generally unhappy. Improvements in school books and government are not introduced. The schools are conducted nearly in the same manner now as they were the last century.

'The Society was new to the people, but when its objects were made known, it received in every instance their thanks, best wishes and coöperation; and the cordial recommendation of the leading men in various parts of the State.'

In *New Jersey*, according to an official report made to the Legislature, there are 11,573 children who do not attend school, besides 1500 adults who are unable to read. The instruction of a much greater number is merely nominal.

From a speech of the Governor of Pennsylvania in 1830, it appears that of 400,000 children in that state, 250,000 were without instruction. This is nearly *a fifth* of the *whole population*, and taking into consideration the great number of adults who cannot read, would be *one fourth.*

In *Indiana*, there are 22,000 children and 18,000 adults who cannot read; and yet the whole population in 1830 was only 343,028. The population here is about *one eighth* of the whole. A gentleman who has recently explored this State, informed a public meeting in New York that not more than one child in five, in that state, enjoyed the benefits of instruction.

In Kentucky we learn from returns, made by the deputy marshals of each county, to the marshal of the State, in connection with the census of 1830, the originals of which are now in the possession of President Peers of Lexington, that in 1830, the whole number of children between 5 and 15 years of age was 143,738, of whom 103,337, or much more than *two thirds*, received no instruction.*

In Tennessee, only one quarter of the children are instructed, leaving about 160,000 destitute. Illinois is equally destitute.

Thus in five states only, viz. Pennsylvania, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana and Illinois, it is pretty well ascertained that there are at least 600,000 children destitute of the ordinary means of elementary instruction; making on the average nearly *one fifth* of the whole population of these states.

The juvenile population of Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Ohio, amounts to 803,219. It appears probable, that

* The following table shows the proportion of children in Kentucky between the ages of 5 and 15 years who receive no instruction, in twenty of the counties; as published by Pres. Peers, in the Sunday School Journal, Vol. 1. No. 17.

Ten Counties, showing the least proportion of children at school.				Ten Counties showing the greatest proportion of children at school.			
Counties.	No. at school.	No. of children from 5 to 15.	Proportion at school.	Counties.	No. at school.	No. of children from 5 to 15.	Proportion at school.
Morgan,		893	00 in 893	Bourbon,	1,246	3,019	10 in 23
Russel,	28	926	10 " 300	Fayette,†	1,122	3,870	10 " 36
Clay,	51	959	10 " 180	Mason,	1,180	3,080	10 " 26
Perry,	52	992	10 " 180	Woodford,	666	1,812	10 " 28
Pike,	53	785	10 " 140	Mercer,	1,043	3,441	10 " 34
Laurel,	41	582	10 " 140	Scott,	690	2,525	10 " 36
Harlam,	64	841	10 " 130	Pulaski,	599	2,438	10 " 40
Knox,	113	1,104	10 " 100	Washington,	907	4,119	10 " 42
Cumberland,	241	2,005	10 " 90	Madison,	1,054	3,446	10 " 34
Carey,	126	1,154	10 " 95	Nelson,	957	2,873	10 " 30

† Exclusive of Lexington, where about 500 of 1000 children are at school.

the number instructed in these states does not exceed the average proportion in Pennsylvania and Kentucky; and this would leave two thirds, or 462,000 children without schools. How far the employment of private instructors among the higher classes of some of these states, may vary this estimate, we are not prepared to judge.

The remainder of the western states and territories cannot be supposed to be better supplied than Tennessee and Indiana; and we must presume, that of 190,000 children in these states, about 150,000 are destitute of common instruction.

By this mode of calculation we find reason to believe, that there were in 1830, in the states south and west of New York, 1,210,000 children without the ordinary means of instruction. With the rapid increase of those states, amounting to 45 or 50 per ct. in ten years, and with the annual addition of foreigners to the amount of 120,000 annually,* chiefly in these states, and usually very ignorant, the amount cannot safely be estimated at less than 1,400,000 in the whole United States.

But if we assume the estimate published in the circular of the Society, which certainly appears to be short of the true number, and suppose that 1,000,000 of the children of this free and happy country are growing up without any means of acquiring the most essential branches of instruction, or even of securing the key of knowledge, there is enough to rouse the feelings, and call forth the most vigorous efforts, of every patriot and every christian.†

But this is not the whole evil. If we desire to train up *citizens* who shall understand and support our institutions, and enable us to maintain our rank as intelligent people, something more than common school instruction must be given; and branches must be taught which require a degree of reflection not found at the ordinary age of those who attend our common schools. It appears from estimates laid before the Society at its annual meeting,‡ that the class of youth

* See Annals of Education, Vol. III. p. 412.

† As a single illustration of the results of the want of schools, described, an intelligent gentleman of Indiana addressed a letter to one of the directors, in which he remarks; That in the oldest part of the state, just on the borders of the Ohio, clusters of twenty or thirty families may be found on the rich river and creek bottoms, *three fourths of the heads of which are unable to read or write!*—whole neighborhoods where there has never been a school for their children—and not one teacher in the whole region capable of instructing in grammar or geography!

The wretchedness of the 'old field schools,' so numerous at the south, is known to every traveller. The character of the teachers cannot be expected to be good. The directors are credibly informed, that many of them are scarcely able to read and write; and the universal complaint of the friends of education in the destitute parts of our country is, that the ignorant and the incapable, the intemperate and immoral, are employed to teach, because *no other instructors can be obtained.* On whom does the duty of supplying this want devolve, if it be not on the north, where there are ample means of education—on the north, where it appears that the proportion of persons of the proper age for teachers, is far greater than at the south?

‡ Since published in the Annals of Education, Vol. III. p. 401.

between 15 and 20 amounts to 1,169,430. But it is found that all the schools of whose existence we have any evidence, beyond the grade of primary schools, could not receive more than *one fifth* of the number, even in Massachusetts and other New England states; and not more than one tenth in other parts of the Union; leaving, in the language of the statement, 'a mass of uncultivated mind among us, which shrouds the prospects of knowledge and religion in deep gloom.'

Circuit or Weekly Schools. In consequence of the urgent need of instruction for adults, the directors of the Society, soon after their appointment, recommended an experiment to be made in order to test the practicability of *weekly* or *circuit schools.* Accordingly, six such schools were formed in different places, where they could be visited by the instructors of the Seminary for teachers at Andover.

The plan adopted for conducting them was the following. Classes were formed to pursue such studies as the majority of the scholars in any school desired. In one, classes in reading, spelling, grammar, arithmetic and moral philosophy were formed. In another, they pursued the study of grammar, arithmetic, history, and writing. In a third, grammar, history, arithmetic, and natural philosophy were the studies. Such lessons were given at the first meeting of the school, as were supposed sufficient to occupy the attention of a class for a week. These lessons were explained, the manner of studying them specified, difficulties pointed out, and those parts which required special attention, were particularly examined. One hour was allowed for the recitation; and the hour in which the lessons were to be recited was stated. At the *second* school the lessons assigned the previous week were heard, and the subjects, if necessary, were more fully explained or illustrated, by the aid of apparatus. A new lesson was assigned for the following week, in the same manner as before, and the exercises concluded with remarks on the practical utility of the subjects of the lessons

The general results have been the following. The lessons were more perfectly acquired, than they generally are in day schools — an unabated interest was kept up during the continuance of the school, where there were no uncommon circumstances to prevent, — the amount of knowledge acquired, varied from one *fourth* to one *third* of that commonly acquired at a regular *day school.* Many of the scholars labored in factories or shops, where they were confined *twelve hours* daily. The only time these could employ in study, was the small portion after six o'clock, in the evenings of the week not otherwise occupied. Nearly *all* were busily employed during every day of the week in labor. Few if any were less active in business than at any other time.

Scholars were often found in the same class whose ages differed more than *thirty years.* In several instances, parents and children pursued the same studies together, with great interest.

Among the *indirect* results, the following deserve notice. A con-

siderable number of the scholars have been induced to seek for more extensive means of instruction, and have connected themselves with high schools or academies. In many instances, new interest has been felt in the studies to which attention is given in the district schools, and has continued unabated to the present time.

Parents have evinced more anxiety about the character of district schools, and have put forth increased efforts to secure those of *good* character.

The instructors, engaged in making the experiment, believe that, had the classes been assembled in the day-time as well as the evening, the number in each place would have been considerably augmented, and the benefits materially increased; and they cannot withhold the opinion, that the system of weekly schools may be made an instrument of no common power, for benefiting the young, and especially the adult population, in the oldest and most densely settled states.

But there are portions of our country so thinly settled, that children cannot be collected in sufficient numbers to form regular schools, for many years to come. For these, no other provision can be made than by circuit schools, in which a teacher is employed to pass from neighborhood to neighborhood, at proper intervals. Schools of this kind have been found to produce admirable effects in Wales, and other thinly settled districts in Europe, and have supplied the place of stationary schools to an unexpected extent, by exciting in every family the spirit of inquiry, and rendering each, to some extent, a school of mutual instruction.

The committee have thus given a brief outline of the operations, and Society, and some of the results. It will be obvious from this sketch, without extending the report, that the Society has only aimed at *exploring the state of our country* and *carrying home to every part of it*, which their means have enabled them to reach, the *information collected*, and the improvements brought forward on the subject of education, by other associations, in discussions, and lectures, and publications.* They have employed the only means yet found effectual for such a purpose — the eye and the voice of the living agent. Our prisons were nurseries of disease and vice, until they were laid

* We never hear of jealousy between philanthropic institutions, but we think of a remark of the Lord Chancellor (then Mr) Brougham, which we heard at a public meeting of the Infant School Society in London, some years since. A new society of this kind, had been formed by the prelates of the established church, but a few days before the meeting; in consequence of dissatisfaction with the measures of this. Mr Brougham rose after the report was read, and observed that he had been happy to learn that an Auxiliary Society to this had recently been formed, by some distinguished prelates. '*Rival* Society, you mean, Sir,' said the Chairman (Lord Lansdowne, I believe). 'No Sir,' replied Mr Brougham, turning to the Chairman with a firm voice; '*I mean an Auxiliary Society*. Every Society which attempts to rescue these unhappy children from ignorance and vice, is *auxiliary* to us.'

Surely the field of ignorance and misery is not so narrow, even in our country, that we need fear its being appropriated too rapidly.—EDITOR.

open and reformed, by the efforts of a philanthropic agent, exclusively devoted to this subject; and our schools will, in our view, neither be examined, or extended, or improved as they should be, without some similar mode of action. In our busy country, the whole community have never been roused to attention or effort, on any subject, without similar means; and the benefit to be derived from them is obvious, in the feelings and the contributions called forth for every object to which they have been applied. The committee earnestly hope, that they will not cease to be applied to our schools, until every child, and every youth in our country, shall receive that education which is necessary to prepare him for duties as a man, and a citizen, and an heir of immortality.

On behalf of the Committee,

S. R. Hall, Chairman.

Art. VII. — On the Size and Ventilation of School-Rooms.

To the Committee of the American Institute, on the Subject of School-Houses.

[The negligence of the comfort and health of children which is evinced by the carelessness of teachers and parents and the overseers of schools, in regard to the ventilation of school-rooms, is as dangerous as it is unpardonable; and we feel bound to urge it upon their attention again and again; and we beg those who read our pages to make the facts known to others. With these views we insert the following article, addressed to the Committee on School-Rooms of the American Institute of Instruction, and which is unknown to many of our subscribers. We hope they will apply it to practical purposes, for the benefit of their own children or pupils.]

Gentlemen, — The *air* we breathe is so common a blessing, that its value is not estimated; and the importance of preserving its purity in schools, by constructing rooms of sufficient size, and providing ample means of ventilation, cannot be appreciated, without considering the influence which it has upon life, health, and mental vigor. While I shall not attempt to offer an entire plan for a school-room, I have hoped to promote the general object you have in view, by collecting the principal facts in relation to the subject of *air*, which ought to be considered in its construction and arrangements.

Effects of Air on the Blood. — The heart of a healthy individual, of mature age, beats about sixtysix times a minute, or four thousand times an hour; that of a child, much faster. The whole mass of the blood is supposed to pass through it, fourteen times an hour, or once in four minutes. After it returns through the veins to the *heart*, and before it is again sent out into the body, it is made to pass through the *lungs*, where it comes in contact with the air we breathe, and undergoes several important changes.

1. Its *temperature* is raised several degrees. 2. Its *color* is

changed, from a dark red to a light crimson — a change which the venous blood will undergo when drawn from the body and placed in the air; and it is found to contain an increased proportion of oxygen, or vital air. The whole mass of blood, thus altered every four minutes, conveys heat and nourishment and life to the extremities of the body; and if the process be interrupted, or imperfectly performed, for four minutes only, every organ and member of the body is of course more or less affected.

These changes *cannot be produced* without the presence of *oxygen*, or vital air; and they are produced in a healthy manner, only, by *such a mixture*, as we find in a pure atmosphere, consisting of 20 per cent of oxygen, and 80 of nitrogen. If an air *less pure*, or containing other gases, be breathed, these changes are not thoroughly produced; the lungs perform their task with difficulty; and the body and the limbs do not receive their *due supplies of nourishment*, and *vital energy*. They are even *injured* by the *half corrupted* state of the blood; and that weariness and languor are produced, which is always the consequence of spending some time in a bad air. Thus the person who attends a crowded assembly, where the ventilation is not complete, will find lassitude, and often chills extending through every limb, and languor invading every faculty of the mind; a feverish, unpleasant taste in the mouth; a restlessness through the following night, and often a degree of exhaustion in the morning, like that which succeeds a night spent in travelling. In order, therefore, to *preserve the body in health*, even after it has gained maturity, and especially to supply it when it is *growing*, and invigorate the constitution when it is forming, it is of the *highest importance* that the air should be preserved in that state of purity which the Creator designed. It is true, that disease and death do not *immediately* follow every deviation from this standard; but it is also certain that *some degree of injury must be produced;* and such a reason for neglect is as insufficient, as it would be to excuse ourselves for giving our friends or our children, food which was partially spoiled, or drink which was partially filthy, because it would not immediately destroy their lives or health. How preposterous and inexcusable would every one regard it, to give them their food constantly mingled with poison, or their drink with pernicious and loathsome insects. Yet it is not less inexcusable to furnish them with *half corrupted air*, or that which contains poisonous gases! The *food* is given but three times a day; while the *air* is administered *every moment*. The child is *at liberty* to *receive* or *reject* the food; but he is forced to breathe the air in which we place him. To put our children or friends in a room, which does not contain that supply of vital air which is necessary for their health, is not only to *offer* them a poison, but to *compel them to take it*. Who can tell how much evil has been ignorantly done in this manner — how much health and enjoyment have been destroyed — how many constitutions have been enfeebled! The multitude of pale faces and meagre forms to be found on our school benches, and in our colleges, and our manufactories, will answer the question in part.

The following is one fearful example of the effects of negligence on this point. In the Dublin Hospital, during the four years preceding 1785, two thousand nine hundred and fortyfour children, out of seven thousand six hundred and fifty died within a fortnight after their birth; or thirtyeight out of every hundred. The physician, Dr Clarke, suspected the cause, and introduced air, by means of pipes six inches in diameter. The consequence was, that during the three years following, only one hundred and sixtyfive died out of four thousand two hundred and fortythree, or less than four in a hundred. The fair conclusion, therefore, was, that two thousand six hundred and sixtyfive children, of the previous years, died for want of pure air!!* We shudder at the history of the 'black hole of Calcutta;'† but here was a sacrifice of life, eighteen times as great, in an institution of charity!

Quantity of Air Consumed. — A man in health, is supposed to breathe, on the average, twenty times in a minute, and to take in forty cubic inches of air at one inspiration; or eight hundred cubic inches, equal to three and one fifth gallons per minute. Of this, one fifth only, or one hundred and sixty cubic inches, is vital air, or *oxygen*; and thirtytwo cubic inches, or one fifth of the whole vital air contained, is consumed in the minute, in order to produce the changes in the blood which are necessary to health. In five minutes, therefore, the vital air of the whole three and one fifth gallons would be consumed; or, in *one minute*, the vital air of two-thirds of a gallon. In one hour, the whole vital air of nine thousand six hundred cubic inches, or fortyone gallons, would be destroyed, and respiration could no longer be performed.

But in addition to this, an amount equal, or nearly equal, to that of the oxygen consumed, is produced of *carbonic acid*, formerly called fixed air (which often destroys life in wells); and this *poisonous gas* is breathed in place of vital air. At the end of half the time mentioned, therefore, we shall have an air composed of only half the proper quantity of *oxygen*, and corrupted by an equal quantity of a poisonous gas. In this view of the subject, we can hardly doubt that *double the supply* we have stated, *i. e.* twenty thousand cubic inches, or eightytwo gallons per hour, would leave a person to faint and die. Facts confirm this estimate.

Particular experiments were made on this subject by two English philosophers, Dr Henderson, and Mr Kite. Dr Henderson breathed six hundred cubic inches for four minutes; or nine thousand cubic inches, equal to thirtysix gallons, an hour; and was *compelled to stop*, after suffering much oppression and distress for breath.

Mr Kite breathed five hundred and ninetyone inches, for a minute;

* There are many examples which show that typhus fever is often the result of neglecting ventilation; and it is rendered contagious in the same way.

† In a dungeon, so called, at Calcutta, 18 feet square, 146 persons were confined; and although there was one window for the admission of air, 123 of the number died in agony, in ten hours!

equal to seventeen thousand seven hundred and thirty inches, or one hundred and fortyone gallons per hour, and *was greatly oppressed for breath.* He breathed the same quantity one and a half minutes, and the oppression became intolerable; and in two minutes use of one third gallons of air, (equal to seventy gallons per hour) he became giddy, his face swelled, and he fell back in his chair.

Halley says, that it requires at least one gallon per minute to *sustain life*, or sixty gallons an hour; but this was the air compressed by being in a diving-bell, at the bottom of the sea; and the quantity must be estimated higher at the surface of the earth. *Lavoisier* says, that, according to his experiments, a man would *die* in 5 cubic feet, or eight thousand six hundred and forty inches, in an hour.

It would appear, then, that when a person is *confined* to three hundred cubic inches, 1¼ gallons of air a minute, or to eighteen thousand cubic inches, or seventytwo gallons an hour, he will be in danger of *oppressed breathing, and fainting.* He will not receive the supplies necessary to maintain his vital energies without *much more air.* The question, 'How little can be afforded without immediate danger to life?' is one which *should never be asked* by a kind, or even faithful educator, concerning that which God bestows in unlimited abundance, and which can only be excluded by inexcusable parsimony, or cruel neglect, towards those under our care. We are not merely bound *to keep children alive*, but to give them all the air which is necessary to *invigorate* their *constitutions, to produce comfort, and cheerfulness, and activity*, of body and mind. We must therefore resort to the instructions of experience as to this point.

Proper size of school-rooms. — Unfortunately, we have few particular observations in regard to school-rooms.

The French writers on *hospitals*, deem it *indispensable* that each patient (even in the private sick room of a school), should have 6½ *cubic toises of air*, — equal to fourteen hundred cubic feet; *and such* is the plan of the best European hospitals. Sir Gilbert Blane says, six hundred cubic feet are necessary in England (with a climate much colder, and an air generally purer than ours) for each patient; and that with a less quantity 'it *is impossible to maintain the requisite purity of the air.*' If we take but half the quantity required by the French (allowing the rest on account of disease), it will probably be a better rule for our climate; and when we recollect the superior means of ventilation in the immense rooms of a hospital, (in many cases 70 feet long and 14 feet high) this will *by no means be too much* for a small, close school-room. We shall then have a space of *seven hundred cubic feet* for each pupil; — or, supposing the room to be eight feet high, each child should have *eightyseven square feet*, or a space of 8 feet by 11. It appears from the facts collected by Mr Adams,* that the smallest allowance, in several distinguished schools which he visited, was 7½ feet; and the largest, sixteen to a scholar;

* See Adams's Lecture, in the collection of Lectures delivered before the American Institute in 1830.

or, if the room were ten feet high, (as we believe those referred to are) *seventytwo to one hundred and sixty cubic feet.* Lancaster, whose rooms in England were 15 or 20 feet high, in many cases allowed nine square feet to a pupil, or from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and eighty cubic feet to each; and this where the most rigid economy was demanded. Supposing the ceiling to be ten feet high, — at only the allowance of one hundred and fifty cubic feet to an individual, the *smallest* dimensions of a room for thirty pupils should be 22 by 20 feet; — of one for fifty pupils, 30 by 25 — for seventy pupils, 35 by 30 — and for one hundred — 44 by 34 feet. A *liberal* allowance would require at least *one third more;* and *double the space* is *highly desirable.* But if we reduce the space occupied by each child to *less* than that here allowed, we *hazard his health and constitution,* as well as his immediate comfort, in order to avoid an expense comparatively of no moment. And *with this amount of space,* nothing but *frequent and careful ventilation,* and great attention to cleanliness, in the persons of the pupils as well as in the room, will prevent their suffering from the constant exhalations, (often loaded with disease) which arise from the skin, the stomach, and the lungs; and which cannot be weighed and measured, except by the baneful effects they sometimes produce, when they are suffered to accumulate. These *exhalations,* let it be remembered, are *thrown off* by the organs, *because they are injurious to the person himself.* But without due ventilation they must be *respired by others;* and not only that, they are mingled with the saliva in the mouth, and *pass with it into the stomach.* Who can wonder at the loss of appetite, and diseases of the lungs and stomach, which are so commonly connected with ill-ventilated school-rooms! Such places are literally nurseries of disease, and open sepulchres for health, and happiness!

Ventilation of school rooms. — In regard to the mode of ventilating school-rooms, it should be remembered, that the gases and exhalations in a crowded assembly are of two kinds; 1st, those which ascend on account of their heat or lightness to the upper part of the room, and are perceived by those who sit in elevated galleries, or whose heads are in any way raised towards the ceiling; and 2d, the *carbonic acid* or fixed air, which is heavier than the atmosphere, and therefore descends, and occupies that part of the room next the floor, in the same manner as it is found to settle in wells and cellars. To favor the escape of the lighter exhalations, it is indispensable to have openings over the tops of the windows, or in the upper part of the room; and scarcely any degree of ventilation below will supply their place.*

* I presume many have noticed a fact illustrating this remark, which I have more than once observed in travelling; that when a room which has been closed during the day in warm weather, is aired at night by windows opening only from below, the air will appear for a short time quite fresh; but on shutting the windows, will become, in half an hour, as close as ever. In this case, the warm exhalations and lighter gases remained undisturbed at the top of the room; and as soon as the lower air, which has been cooled, becomes heated, and ascends, they are again brought down, and become perceptible.

In the winter season, an opening into the upper part of the chimney, when the draft is good, will answer the purpose. Where this is wanting, and especially in rooms where lights are used, a very excellent means of ventilation is found in an artificial chimney, formed by a pipe issuing from the upper part of the room, with a large funnel at the opening; in which a lamp is kept burning. By means of the strong draft here produced, Sir Humphrey Davy, the celebrated English chemist, cleared his laboratory in a very short time, after having filled it with noxious gases.

But it is not less necessary to guard against the effects of the *carbonic acid*, which settles in the lower part of the room. In caverns and wells, it often rises only to a certain height; so that above this level an individual may breathe and a light may burn, perfectly well; while a light would be extinguished and respiration obstructed, or stopped, on descending below it. Thus, in the celebrated *Grotto del Cane* — in Italy, in which this gas issues from a cave, and although it is invisible, can be found by its effects to flow along the ground — a dog will die, while a man whose mouth is elevated above the level of the gas, suffers no inconvenience. The teacher, therefore, especially if he is elevated on a platform, will not always be sure that the air of that part of the room in which the smaller children are breathing is good, merely because he perceives no want of purity in that which surrounds him; and, like the man in the Grotto, may be surprised to find that one who breathes below him suffers from the badness of air. On this account, it is of great importance that no part of the room should be below the level of the doors; and that regular provision should be made for opening the doors frequently, and for a sufficient time, to allow this deleterious gas to flow off. These circumstances seem to me very decisive arguments against making a school-room descend, as I have sometimes seen, towards the centre, producing a kind of 'black hole' for the smaller children; and they show the importance of employing rooms above the level of the ground, for schools, as well as other assemblies of people. The immediate evil effects are imperceptible perhaps; but seeds of disease and debility may be planted, which no subsequent care can eradicate.

The best mode of securing regular ventilation as well as uniform heat in a school-room, during the season when the windows must be closed, undoubtedly is, to introduce the external air from the side, and not from the cellar of the building, through a stove or furnace, so that it may enter the room warm, diffuse the heat equally throughout, and prevent the current of cold air which presses in at every crevice. In this way also, the doors and windows may be opened at any time, without cooling the room too much, as the air usually presses outward.*

* Several excellent plans have been discovered for this purpose, of which I trust the Committee will furnish some account. I have found, that a common stove might be made to answer the same purpose, in some degree, in the following way: — Let a close case of sheet-iron be made of such dimensions as to rise from the

The facts and principles presented in this paper, have been collected with care, from the best and most recent authorities in Chemistry and Physiology within my reach;* in the hope that they might serve to impress more deeply on the minds of parents, and of the guardians and visitors of our schools, the importance of providing the indispensable means of bodily health and intellectual vigor, *for teachers and their pupils.* It can scarcely admit of a doubt, that the premature decay, or sudden destruction of many a faithful teacher, and the debility of constitution of many a pupil, is brought on by the insidious but poisonous influence of the corrupt air in which they spend their days. The economy, which hazards such results, by providing small school-rooms, can only be compared to that infatuated avarice, *which destroys life in striving to obtain or to hoard the means of existence.* In no single mode, probably, could the American Institute be more useful, than in establishing and circulating correct views on this important subject; and I cannot but hope that their efforts will be the means of extensive good, on this and many other subjects of vital importance to the interests of education, and therefore, to the prosperity of our country.

I am, Gentlemen,
Respectfully yours,
WILLIAM C. WOODBRIDGE.

ART. VIII. — PRACTICAL LESSONS IN GEOLOGY. — DIALOGUE IV.

FATHER, I have just found something new. I saw some men putting down large, flat stones, for the side walks, that glittered in the sun like mica, and I took a little piece that was knocked off: what is it?

That which glitters on the outside is mica. But look at the edge of it: can you see nothing else?

Yes, father, I see grains; some of them like quartz, and some white.

floor to the top of the stove, or a little above it, on three sides; and so large that there will be a space of two inches on all sides between the stove and the case. The stove should be raised on legs, or bricks, a few inches from the floor, and the opening beneath closed in front with brick — the other three sides being closed by the case. Introduce the air from without, by a wooden trough, and let it rise under the bottom of the stove, and it will pass out between the stove and its case in a pleasant state of warmth. The trough should be furnished with a slide, to regulate the amount of air, according to the warmth of the stove and of the room; and the case should be so constructed that it may be removed, in order to clean the space around the stove when necessary. The steam stove of Fessenden, maintains a far more equable and pleasant heat than those usually employed, and the same arrangements might be made for ventilation with this, even more successfully. Dampers should be used with great care; they often fill the room with noxious air.

* Among these are Hare's, Gorham's, Henry's, and Silliman's Chemistry; Richerand's Magendie's and Bostock's Physiology; Londe's Hygiene; the Paris Dictionary of Medical Sciences, and Rees' Cyclopedia.

Well, my son, those are quartz and feldspar; so that we have all the letters of the alphabet that make granite. But is it granite?

It does not *look* like it, because it is all in *layers* — a layer of mica, and then a layer of the grains, and then a layer of mica. And then it splits into large, flat pieces; and granite will not.

You have told the difference, my son. It is just like granite, except that the parts are in layers. It is called gneiss, a German word, pronounced *nice*. Sometimes you will find nothing but mica and quartz, and then it is called mica slate. But do you see any use in having it in layers?

O yes, father; it makes beautiful flat stones for walks; and I remember, the floor of my uncle's cellar is covered with it. I do not believe they could use granite so.

It is difficult to make it so thin. Observe, my son, as you go on, how we find something made for *every use;* and do not forget HIM that made them all.

DIALOGUE V.

Here is another piece of stone, father, that I found where they were putting up some pillars, that looks just like granite; but there is something black and shining in it, besides the mica.

Scratch it with your steel, and see what color it is.

I see, it is a dark green; but it looks *black*, at first.

It does; but if you pound it with another stone, you will find that it breaks green. Here is a large piece of it alone.

Why, father, it is so tough I can hardly break it.

Well, now tell me what are the qualities you have found.

It is green, and shining, and tough, but it can be scratched with steel.

You are right, my son, and it is the fourth letter of the alphabet in geology. It is called hornblende; horn, probably, for its toughness. It is found in the Egyptian granite; and I suppose gives it greater toughness and durability. Sometimes, too, we find rocks of hornblende alone.

Is this called *granite*, that has hornblende in it?

It is among builders, but geologists call it *syenite*, another *word* in geology. A great deal of the granite used in building, is *properly*, *syenite*.

But here is another *word* in geology, formed of hornblende mixed with feldspar. Do you see the white and green, mixed together, and the shining spots when you turn it?

Yes, father; what is it called?

It is sometimes called *greenstone*, and sometimes *trap*, from a Swedish word *trappa*, that means *stair;* and when it is very fine and close grained, so that it seems all black alike, it is called *basalt*.

Why, father, I have read about the Giant's Causeway, in Ireland, made of basalt. Is that the same?

Yes, my son; what do you know about that?

Why, sir, my geography says, that it is all in pieces like pillars; and it looks in the picture as if it had been cut into pieces.

That is true, my son. All the greenstone rocks break somewhat in the same way, and seem like a great many pillars of five or six sides set up together. The Palisado Rocks on the Hudson river, and the rocks near New Haven, in Connecticut, and in many other places in our country, look just so.

Art. IX. — Economy in Education.

There are some plans for economy in education, which, so far as we have known, have not received the proper attention in works on this subject.

The first plan may be styled kitchen education. The first point to be secured is, that the poor should not be well educated; because this would make them worth more, and make their wages too high for domestics. This being done, the improved plan will secure cheap education, and save all the trouble which would otherwise devolve upon the parents, by consigning this charge to domestics. When they are very young, there must be a nurse, of course, who often knows better than the mother how to manage children. If they are left *entirely* to her care, they become attached to her, so that they do not trouble their parents by hanging about them, or crying when they are going away. But the principal economy is, when they are five or six years old, and require watching and whipping to keep them out of mischief. The domestics can do all this, while they attend to their work; and this saves the parent's time. In addition to this, they become well acquainted with all domestic matters, by inspection; they can hear a great many stories and learn a great many words, which they could never hear from their parents or friends. They learn about the world, especially about all the domestics in the neighborhood; and sometimes hear what troublesome, disagreeable people their parents are; and 'how foolish it is to do what they order.'

But the plan of *street education* is still more economical and useful. It saves all the time of the domestics as well as of the parents. It makes a child still better acquainted with the world, especially in a city. Before he is eight years old, he will learn more of it, from the people that pass along, including ragmen, sawyers, beggars and truants, &c, than his father ever knew, if he was educated in the country. He will acquire from the boys in the street, a variety of ingenious tricks, and many habits which no instruction at home would ever have given him. He will learn a language, too, that will make him at home, in any forecastle, or cellar, or jail, in the country. It happens frequently that a boy will acquire the art of swearing in the most polite manner, before he is six years old, although his father only gives him sufficient examples at home to encourage it. And then, it takes away all the silly shamefacedness of a child. It will teach him the best mode of making his way through the world alone; especially if he is led away by other ingenious boys, and taught how to make excuses; and occasionally 'fights them.' But the best recommendation is, that *it costs nothing* — either in time or trouble, or money; and it will require *no reading, no thought, and no anxiety.* In consequence of the immense saving in all these respects, it has already been more generally adopted by parents, than any other of the modern *improvements* in education.

INTELLIGENCE.

Manual Labor Seminary at Lexington, Mass.

This Institution is to go into operation November 4th, 1833. The design of the seminary is, by means of a mechanic's shop and a garden, to furnish healthful and profitable exercise to all who desire it, in connection

with instruction, illustrated with a complete set of Apparatus, in all the branches usually taught in our highest Academies.

Manual Labor School in Africa.

We are happy to learn from the Liberia Herald, that Mr Savage, an agent for some emigrants who recently went out from New Orleans to Liberia, contemplates the establishment of a Manual Labor school in the colony. His present residence is at Millburg; and it is not unlikely that the citizens of that place may have the honor of putting into successful operation the first Manual Labor school in Africa.

A free school for recaptured Africans has been in successful operation at Liberia for some time, under the care of Rev. James Eden. No means can probably hasten more rapidly the progress of civilization in that region.

Massachusetts Free School in Liberia.

The people of Liberia appear highly gratified with the efforts which have been made by some of their friends in Massachusetts, to promote the cause of education among them, and to establish a free school on the basis of the free schools of Massachusetts; and they point to several places where such a school might be successfully located.

Parliamentary Aid to the Cause of Education in England.

The sum of £20,000 has been voted by the House of Commons for the promotion of education throughout England — the first parliamentary assistance if not the first parliamentary encouragement which has been given to Education in England for a great number of years. The money is to be placed at the disposal of the National and Lancasterian School Societies, to assist the establishment of schools in those places where, with a little aid at the commencement, they may be maintained by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants. — *New York Adv.*

This is doing very well for England; but the sum is rather small to be distributed among 12,000,000 of people. The little state of Connecticut alone, with scarcely more than a quarter of a million of inhabitants, devotes nearly an equal sum to her schools, from the public treasury. We think England has *begun* in the right manner, however, for it should be the great object of all government movements of this sort to help the people to help themselves; and whenever legislative aid fails of this tendency, we may conclude at once, that it is misapplied.

Bequest to Teachers.

We learn from a London paper that Mr Dick, late of Scotland, left a large bequest, the interest of which was to be divided among the parish schoolmasters in Marayshire. A dividend of the accumulated interest was made about the end of August last, and each teacher received about 100 pounds sterling.

Young Ladies' Institute at Tampico.

An Institute for Young Ladies has been established at Tampico, in Mexico, by a lady from the College of the Legion of Honor, in Paris.

NOTICES.

Outlines of the Constitutional Jurisprudence of the U. S. &c, by Wm. A. Duer, Pres. of Columbia College. New York, Collins & Hannay, 12mo.

We have received the title and preface of this work. Its *object* is highly important. Of its character, a jurist is *now* the only competent judge.

Inquiries concerning the Intellectual Powers, and the Investigation of truth, by John Abercrombie, M. D., F. R. S. With additions and explanations, to adapt the work to the use of schools and academies, by Jacob Abbott. Hartford. F. J. Huntington, 1833. 12mo. pp. 276.

A work of great value, prepared for the use of schools, by an experienced teacher. We are much pleased with Mr Abbott's simple directions for study; and his plan of contents, instead of questions to each page, is one which we have long considered the best for advanced pupils.

Popular Lessons in Astronomy, on a new plan; in which some of the leading principles of the Science are illustrated by actual comparisons, independent of the use of numbers. By Francis J. Grund. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 1833. 4to. pp. 24.

One of the luxuries in school books, which ought to have a place in every school, and as far as possible, in every family. The execution is on a scale, and in a style, superior to any we have seen; and the character of Mr Grund leads us to place entire confidence in its accuracy.

The New Testament of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ: Translated out of the original Greek; and with the former translations diligently compared and revised. Stereotype edition. Boston: Lilly, Wait, & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 453.

Another luxury, which we long to see in the hands of every child in the country. We consider the publishers as performing a great service, in thus guarding against the injury to the eyes produced by the wretched paper and small type, which often render the best of books less useful, and we sometimes feel, almost dishonor it. We earnestly hope they will reduce the size of the paper, so as to bring it, if possible, within the reach of our schools and of the aged poor, to whom the scriptures are often a sealed book, for want of such a copy. We have been favored with the specimen annexed. It has led us to the determination, that we will not hereafter tax the eyes of our readers, as we have done.

In our note concerning the Address before the Institute, we alluded to a formal denial, as it seemed to us and to others, preserved in the printed copy, of a religious opinion held by many of the assembly. We are gratified to learn that it was not so designed; but that the speaker intended to refer, not to opinions, but to methods of discipline alluded to in the same connection. We feel the liability to such inadvertences, because we have one to acknowledge ourselves, which the want of time to re-examine, prevented our noticing in our last number.

We classed the work of Miss Fry with two others, one of whose titles avowed the religious opinions of its author, and observed, that 'some portions of each involved the religious views of its author,' but that they *contained* 'admirable exhibitions of the true principles of *moral education* and *discipline*.'

A subscriber has complained to us, that our remarks were not sufficiently explicit, and that he was led to purchase a work entirely opposed to his own religious views. We find, on examining the work again, that Miss Fry has introduced the views of the 'Evangelical' party, as it is termed in England, much more than we at first observed, and that our remarks ought to have been more cautious, or more full. We are gratified however, in finding, that one of the most constant readers of the Annals, and of different religious opinion from our own on many points, has found no other instance in which the work has departed from its avowed principles on this subject. If others have occurred, we hope equal frankness will be used in stating them.

To the Friends of the "Annals."

We avail ourselves of the only method at present in our power, to acknowledge the kindness of numerous friends who have addressed us, and especially of those who have exerted themselves to gain subscribers to the Annals, or have contributed to purchase the volumes on hand. We are also much indebted to those who have so kindly urged its claims, in our newspapers and periodical works; and for the frequent, gratuitous insertion of advertisements.

The strong expressions of interest and confidence in the work, from every quarter, have been peculiarly gratifying, when we have recollected its defects. They are connected, not a little, with the perplexities of our threefold task, of providing for its editorial management, its pecuniary burdens, and our own support; and this we hope will be accepted as an apology for them. It is only on this ground that we have any regret for the sacrifices we have already made. We are still prepared to go on, and to decline lucrative occupations presented to us, provided we can be relieved from a part of this task, by the purchase of the sets of the work now on hand, with an equal number for the ensuing year. But we beg our friends to recollect, that the *personal interest* of the editor is not consulted by sustaining him at a post, which at the best, will require a sacrifice; and we hope their aid will be given, *only so far as they regard the object as important.*

If they proceed on this ground, they will doubtless meet, as we have done, with indifference and prejudice in various forms. They will find parents who pay more attention to every study, and every object of interest, than to the character of their children: guardians of schools, who consult only for economy or display; and even teachers who have "finished their studies," and stereotyped their opinions and plans, and who do not desire to hear of improvements, lest they should admit their own fallibility, or be led to some labor which they are unable or unwilling to perform. In advocating this cause, they will see the intuitive truth of the maxim, that without elementary and secular education, neither the lecturer, nor the preacher, nor the useful book — not even the bible itself — can exert their proper influence, on civilization or religion. They will understand friends of education at the West, who tell us that Sunday schools often fail for want of the aid of elementary schools, and educated teachers; and that the wildest errors in religion, arise from the same deficiency. And yet they will find men devoted to the cause of humanity, who forget the importance of the foundation on which the whole fabric of civilization and learning and religion rests, and are almost impatient with those who consecrate themselves, or their works, entirely to this neglected portion of the building; who will send hundreds to cleanse the streams of evil, and scarcely ten to purify the fountains, — the weekly schools of childhood.

But we hope, that with some, at least, all this will only appear as new evidence of the necessity of exertion — as a new motive to urge the employment of every means for diffusing information, and exciting interest on the subject. If a reformation is to be effected in the extent and character of our national education, it will of course meet with opposition, not only from prejudice and apathy, but from ignorance and indolence and pride. And when did ignorance seek for light, or prejudice pay for improvement; or when did indolence or apathy or pride attempt to reform themselves? These obstacles never were overcome — a reform never was effected — except by the *untiring efforts* and *unsparing sacrifices of the few, first interested in the subject*, and by their exertions, in carrying home knowledge and conviction to the minds of others.

What would have been done for temperance, if its advocates had waited until the adepts and the novices in drinking had come to buy their publications? What would be done for any object involving the moral interests of our race, if its friends were to wait till their efforts were called for, and paid? The doctrine of the correspondence between demand and supply does not apply here; because the *need* is greatest, where the *want* is least felt.

For ourselves, we shall not cease to labor for this great object. If *half our subscribers*, scattered over the Union, will join us, a host of friends may in time be enlisted; and before another generation has risen, THE WORK MAY BE DONE!

If each will undertake to *explore* and make known the condition of schools, first in his own neighborhood, and then in his county and state; if he will lay before others, their defects, and the proper remedies, he will soon excite *them* to action, and establish communication, and form associations, among the friends of the cause. If each will study the subject, and spread around him by correspondence, and by conversation, by reading and lending books, and by lectures, the information he acquires, *ignorance* must open her eyes, and *apathy* will be roused, and *indolence* will be compelled by shame, if not by interest, *to act*. The results will enable him to conquer prejudice itself, so far as to engage every friend of humanity in the great object; and with the blessing of Providence the thorough education of every American youth may be secured.

Should this journal go on, we shall endeavor to coöperate more directly with them in these efforts. When it came into our hands, we found a few hundred readers only remaining, who had adhered to it from their deep interest in the cause, even when it was without an editor. We felt that to such persons, already familiar with the subject, we should chiefly address ourselves in regard to the general state of education, and the most recent improvements at home and abroad; and present extended documents and statistical views, which might put them in possession of great facts and principles, rather than the details adapted to immediate use. We have received all the approbation we could reasonably hope in this course; and we rejoice that we have been able to accumulate a mass of materials, which are considered by able educators, as of permanent value. But we feel that it is not so necessary hereafter to *add* to the amount, as to *apply* what has been presented to the purposes of social life, of the family, and of the school. To these objects, which are demanded by our extended list of subscribers, we shall devote more of our pages. Still we mean that the work should be substantial in its character, and should serve as a book of reference for the history of education. We are not willing that it should contribute to cultivate the pernicious taste so prevalent, for that which requires no thought, and which for all practical purposes, is banishing everything but the newspaper, from the family library, and retains the rest as mere ornaments. We have hitherto been unsuccessful in our efforts to secure regular contributions. It would gratify us if we could receive the aid of the friends of the cause, in the literary as well as the financial concern of the work; and thus give it greater interest to the various classes of readers.

We have been asked why our work did not enter more into the subject of religious education. We reply; that we have already *many* periodicals on this subject; we need *one*, at least, of another kind.

Public opinion demands that we have general schools, for the communication of general knowledge: and in most cases, it will not admit the introduction of peculiar religious views. To these schools, all sects send their children for instruction. We can see no other mode of reaching, even the children of religious parents, in their *weekly* and *permanent habits*, but through the medium of these general schools, and by a work which

corresponds to them in character. We have felt anxious, then, to procure the opportunity of pleading with every parent, and teacher, and school committee, and legislator, that A GOD should be acknowledged, and THE SCRIPTURES, *without note and comment*, should be a text book, in every school and literary institution in our land. We sought for the privilege of pointing out to all who act on the subject, the alarming defects prevailing in our country in the education of the *body*, the *mind*, and the *heart*, and of the plans of instruction and discipline, which in our view, and in the view of men far wiser and more experienced than ourselves, are preparing the way for a race of feeble bodied and inefficient beings, and thus sapping the foundations of our religious, as well as our political institutions.

In these views, we find ourselves sustained by some of the most able and devoted friends of learning and religion, of various sects; and on these we feel bound to act. We cannot reserve or compromise our own peculiar religious views, where we are called to act on that subject; but we feel that there is a need, in regard to Education, of union among all who venerate the Scriptures, or who value our political and religious institutions; and in publications designed to promote this, we consider such views as much out of place, as in a journal devoted to the cause of Temperance or of Liberty. We have met with *opposition*, only from presses and individuals avowedly opposed to all religion; we shall always regard this as the best evidence of our faithfulness. We ask only the aid of the friends of religion and morals.

THE EDITOR.

PUBLISHERS' NOTICE.

The following proofs of public confidence in the Annals satisfy us that the persevering efforts of its friends may now secure its continuance.

If the expenses already incurred could be paid by the sale of the volumes on hand, with an equal number for the next year, at a reduced price, the interest now excited in behalf of the work is increasing its subscription so rapidly, that it will doubtless go on. If not, it must stop.

A number of distinguished friends of education, have recommended a subscription to purchase these volumes, at $10 per set, of four volumes, (1831, '2, '3, '4, bound in cloth backs) for distribution among our institutions and libraries, in order to preserve the only American periodical on this subject, and to disseminate the information it contains. Single sets for private use, $12. Orders (specifying whether the volume for 1834 would be in numbers or bound,) may be addressed to the Editor and Proprietor of the work, or to ALLEN & TICKNOR, *Publishers.*

BOSTON, Nov. 1, 1833.

From the North American Review.

"The work before us is, we believe, the only one of the kind that is published in this country, and we regret to learn that the patronage which it has hitherto received, is not sufficient to justify its continuance. We sincerely hope, that efforts will immediately be made, with all the necessary vigor and spirit, by the friends of education throughout the country, for placing it upon a better footing. We consider it entitled, not less by the manner in which it is conducted, than by the nature of the subject, to the support and encouragement of all who are really interested in the cause. — Few persons in the United States unite so many qualifications for carrying on such a work as Mr Woodbridge; and no one could employ them with a truer and more disinterested zeal for the object. * * * * * In this form, the work has been continued for nearly three years; and in the value and variety of its contents, has fully realized the highest expectations that had been formed of it. We should regard its discontinuance as a serious public misfortune."

From the Superintendent of Common Schools in the State of New York.

This work contains much valuable information in regard to improvements in schools, and in the modes of instruction; and its introduction into *every school district* would have a favorable influence, in furnishing new views on the subject of instruction, and in improving the standard of education in common schools.

Extracts of Letters from Teachers.

I am convinced that no teacher would be without it, if he were apprized of the advantages resulting from such a publication.

Another says — It is more useful to me than all the other periodicals I receive. Please consider me a *subscriber for life.*

Extract of a letter from a Mother.

This work comes like a cheering helper in Education. I would not be without it, for twice its price of subscription, which I *earn yearly* by my *knitting needles.*

From the Sunday School Journal.

Few periodicals published in this country, present higher claims to patronage than the Annals. The present editor is abundantly qualified for the department he occupies. We have no hesitation in saying, that it is the DUTY of every teacher to make himself acquainted with the contents of the Annals of Education.

From the New York Observer.

This is the only work in our country devoted to the subject of improving the system of school education; and it has been edited in a manner entirely satisfactory to those most deeply interested in the subject. We hope, for the honor of our country, that the friends of education will not permit the work to be suspended.

From the Boston Christian Register.

We regret to learn from recent notices, that the patronage of this valuable publication is so limited as to prevent its further continuance, unless it speedily receives additional support. * * * * * * We should regard such an event as a public loss, and cannot believe that the intelligent and liberal in our community will permit it to take place.

From the Norwich Courier.

It is an unfavorable omen indeed, for our country, that twelve millions of inhabitants cannot, or rather *will* not, support one periodical devoted to the interests of education — and yet we are vaunting ourselves as the most enlightened nation of the age. The committee in every school district in the state should take a copy *from the commencement.*

From the Episcopal Recorder.

The Annals of Education we feel justified in recommending, as entitled in every respect, to public confidence.

From Zion's Herald.

We have long been accustomed to regard the Annals as an indispensable companion to every teacher. * * * We beg every reader, and especially every teacher, to examine it, and say for himself, as a christian, as a citizen of our republic, whether such a work shall be suffered to perish.

From the Presbyterian.

This work, which has been ably conducted by Mr William C. Woodbridge, at Boston, is apparently upon the eve of being discontinued, for want of general interest in its details. This would be matter of deep regret to the friends of Education, and we notice the fact, in the hope that many of our readers may be awakened to consider the necessity of averting this most undesirable event.

From the Christian Watchman.

Can it be that the "Annals" languishes for want of encouragement, when every voice which has been heard publicly on this subject, has been that of approbation?

AMERICAN

ANNALS OF EDUCATION

AND INSTRUCTION.

DECEMBER, 1833.

Art. I. — Popular Education in North Carolina.

Letters on Popular Education, addressed to the People of North Carolina. Hillsborough: Dennis Heartt, Printer, 1832. 8vo. pp. 102.

In preparing what *may be* our *last number*, we must endeavor to put aside the feelings which crowd upon us, and close our accounts, as well as we may in so brief compass, in regard to the great objects of the work. Our list of subjects, and our stock of materials, contain much that has been only glanced at, and much that remains untouched, not only because we had not time or space, but because the busy world had not time to *read* or *think*. It is but a sorry consolation that this is the fate of most of our cotemporaries, who call upon the world for these efforts — so unreasonable, except to obtain office or emolument; and yet it saves us some of the misgivings of conscience, which might otherwise arise. But we hope to secure indulgence from those who have favored us with books and pamphlets, so substantial in their value that we should have been reproached for doing justice to them, and so solid that they admitted neither of extracts or abridgment, by referring to the difficulties which surround us.

We have often taken up the able pamphlet at the head of this article, with which we were favored long since by Pres. Caldwell, of the University of North Carolina, and laid it down again, in despair of making any such use of it as the author desired, or the subject claimed. We cannot, however, suffer the year to close, without some account of its contents.

The first and most important part of the pamphlet consists of

eleven letters by Pres. Caldwell, addressed to the people of North Carolina; and first published in the Raleigh Register.

It appears from these letters and the preface which accompanies them, that a few years previous to the time of their appearance, the attention of the North Carolina Legislature had been directed to the subject of common education, and that they closed their proceedings by appointing a standing committee of four persons, from the community at large, whose duty it should be to consider well the subject of popular education, and report to the Assembly at their next session. The committee never met, but a report was drawn up by the chairman and sent to other members; and as no other report was prepared, this paper finally went to the Legislature as the report of the committee. But the plan it proposed involved the creation of funds so large, as its basis, that the object was defeated, and nothing was accomplished. Subsequently, however, Pres. C., who was one of the committee, and who has been for many years familiar with the state of education in North Carolina, presented to his countrymen the thoughts which form the substance of the 'Letters.'

He first endeavors to rouse the public attention, by referring to the very great improvements which have been made in the methods of instruction and discipline in other states; and insists, that if his countrymen could have ocular demonstration of the wonderful progress which had been made in the art of teaching, they could not hesitate to take measures for instantly adopting them.

In enumerating the difficulties in the way of improving popular education in that state, he mentions the general dislike to innovation; their remoteness from other states and countries whose example might stimulate them to act; the general aversion of the people to taxation: indifference in regard to education itself; the scattered condition of the population; the hostility, even, of many to knowledge; their want of commercial intercourse; and the general unwillingness to submit to laws which appear to exercise the least constraint upon their actions. And though he regards some of these obstacles as *insurmountable*, yet many of them he thinks would cease, if the public could either witness or be made fully to understand the process of elementary instruction as conducted in some other states, especially New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut. He regards the majority of the people as ready to sustain any system of common education which is practicable, provided it does not involve taxation by legislative enactments. This, it is supposed, must be given up.

As preliminary to proposing a plan for the improvement of common education, Pres. C. takes a view of their present condition. The first and greatest evil mentioned, is the want of quali-

fied teachers. Any one who 'knows how to read, and write, and cypher,' it is said, is regarded as fit to be a 'school-master.' 'Is a man,' remarks Pres. C. 'constitutionally and habitually indolent, a burden upon all from whom he can extract a support? Then there is one way of shaking him off; let us make him a school master! To teach a school is, in the opinion of many, little else than sitting still and doing nothing. Has any man wasted all his property, or ended in debt by indiscretion or misconduct? The business of school keeping stands wide open for his reception; and here he sinks to the bottom, for want of capacity to support himself. Has any one ruined himself, and done all he could to corrupt others by dissipation, drinking, seduction, and a course of irregularities? Nay, has he returned from a prison, after an ignominious atonement for some violation of the laws? He is destitute of character and cannot be *trusted;* but presently he opens a school, and the children are seen flocking to it; for if he is *willing* to act in that capacity, we shall all admit, that as he can read, write, and cypher to the square root, he will make an excellent school master. In short, it is no matter what the man is, or what his manners or principles; if he has escaped with his life from the penal code, we have the satisfaction to think that he can still have credit as a schoolmaster.'

Another considerable evil adverted to is the unhappy disagreement among neighbors, when schools are about to be instituted. For if there are a few who entertain correct opinions, and endeavor to devise means for having a better school than formerly, the numbers who think otherwise oppose them, and generally carry their point.

No wonder, as Pres. C. adds, that education in primary schools should be held in low estimation. It is a natural consequence in the state of things described; and can never be otherwise so long as such a state of things continues.

The next step is to show, that however desirable it might be to provide for education on the plan of New York and some of the Northern states, that is, by establishing a fund, the avails of which shall be appropriated yearly to assist in the support of schools, it is utterly hopeless; and he insists that the project ought at once to be abandoned, instead of wasting time and effort needlessly. He supports his views by tabular estimates.

What then can be done? The first step which shall accomplish anything, he insists, is to establish an institution for the purpose of preparing teachers for their profession. This opinion he supports, by liberal quotations from the Journal of Education, from the Christian Observer of England, and from addresses by Gov. Lincoln of Massachusetts, and the late Gov. Clinton, of New York. He also re-

fers to existing facts in various quarters of the world, and to existing institutions in Europe, especially those of Fellenberg and Pestalozzi. He proposes that the legislature should invest properly the Literary Fund of the State, amounting to $80,000 or $100,000, and apply the interest for the erection and support of a *Central School*, for preparing the instructors of elementary schools upon the most improved methods of instruction. 'Let a head teacher,' he says, 'be selected, with time and opportunity for inquiry from the whole field of the United States, and a salary be allowed him to take charge of the institution; and in this central school, let him train men sent to it, from all the counties of the state. A single year need not pass, after teachers thus formed should have commenced their operations, till a demand for them would be heard, clamorous for more than could be supplied. Give us such teachers as those, would be the cry, and we, too, will have a school for our children.'

To effect this object he proposes that the legislature should appoint a *Board of Education*, whose first duty it would be to determine on the site of this institution. By the name of *Central*, Pres. C. does not mean that the institution ought to be in the centre of the state; but only that wherever it is, it will be a central point of action for diffusing the blessings of elementary education. In the Board of Education it is thought the principal ought to be included; as his practical knowledge must necessarily be of great use to them.

The buildings, constructed with simplicity and plainness, need not cost, in that state, more than $6000 at first; and additions might be made afterwards, as circumstances might seem to demand.

The Board of Education ought also to provide a library for the institution, and to have the general oversight of all its concerns; suggesting, from time to time, their improvements, and making annual reports.

In answer to the question — How is the projected school to be filled with candidates for the profession of teaching? he proposes to have each county appoint five or seven Commissioners, to be governed by certain rules prescribed by the legislature; whose duty it shall be to receive the names of all applicants; from which they shall select as many as the county in which they belong will consent to support, at $100 a year. If more than $100 be necessary, let it be added by themselves or their friends. 'The candidates, before admission, may be required to enter into bond, with competent security to the county commissioners, that should they afterwards desert the profession for which they are thus educated at public expense, they shall replace the sum expended by the county upon their education. They may, however, be released at any time from this obligation by the school commissioners, should

they think proper to remit it. Let it be understood, also, that the first three months after the entrance of a candidate into the central school, shall be a period of probation. At any time during this period, or at the expiration of it, he may be discharged from the school by the Board of Education, or a majority of them, with or without reasons rendered for such dismission. He may be dismissed also, at any time afterwards for misconduct, by the same authority.'

At the close of the course, whether a longer or shorter course shall be prescribed, it is proposed that the candidate receive a certificate, signed by the principal of the school and by the members of the Board; and public examinations should be held for this purpose. But every such qualified instructor shall be bound to teach in the county which educated him.

The central school should always have one or more primary schools connected with it 'for exemplification to the candidates, of the instruction in such schools.' These being conducted under the direction of the principal, who receives a salary, should afford tuition to their pupils gratuitously.

'Whether grounds should be annexed, for manual labor, and to aid in the subsistence of the candidates,' says Pres. C. 'is an inquiry worthy of consideration. Besides hardy exercise united with usefulness, it would tend to rescue bodily toil from the degradation which is connected with it, by a cause of unhappy operation among ourselves. Such employment would act powerfully in preventing the candidate from being corrupted by impressions that he is to be regarded as one entitled to privileges and exemptions. He is to be a man also who knows no vain distinctions between himself and the humblest citizen of the state.'

The course of education and the time necessary to complete it, are not proposed. Two years are, indeed, incidentally mentioned, but not with much confidence; as it would doubtless be a matter which existing circumstances alone could determine.

A large space in these letters is devoted to the purpose of showing that education is as necessary to prepare men for the schoolmaster's profession, as for that of the lawyer, the physician, the mariner and the cabinet-maker; and that the education of the young consists in something more than merely learning to read, write and cypher. In a large proportion of several of the last chapters Pres. C. endeavors to convince the people of North Carolina that what is proposed is *practicable*; attended with little, if any additional present expense; and productive of great future advantages, — national, individual, and social. Some of the considerations which are presented in the hope of rousing his countrymen, are truly eloquent; and we are convinced that so far as they were

read, they could never have been read in vain. The following is a sad confirmation of the views we have formerly expressed:

'Let us place before us in imagination the thousands, may I not say the hundred thousands of our people, old and young, that cannot read. With this prospect in view for a little time only, could we convey in adequate expressions the feelings which it would excite in our bosoms? A wilderness of minds springing into life, and advancing through its tract of years, untaught, untutored, groping their way in darkness, except where a few rays break in upon them from the floating information of the times.

'Let us look into the dwelling of many a family, into which a book has never entered. A throng of children is presently before us. They are growing up in all the wildness of nature. Their expression is marked with no traits of gentleness or the mild affections to engage the eye; no lineaments denoting intelligence made interesting with variety of thought. An inquisitive and wondering gaze indicates that the emotions and ideas excited in them are vague and indefinable. The indurated muscles and sharpened features, manifest the want of a humanizing influence within. The veins swell not with a free and expanded flow, illuminated and sweetened by the genial and diversified actions of the heart. How shall it be otherwise, since no culture of the mind or the affections, has ever softened the original asperity of nature, and the countenance is the index of the few accidental thoughts and unmitigated dispositions that reign within. No system appears in the household of a mother, who in like manner was cast upon existence without a moulding or directing hand. She too was left to take the path which might offer to an eye untaught to discriminate, and to pursue it whithersoever its random course might lead. To her offspring, she has imparted life. Her instincts have impelled her to appease the cravings of their appetite, and to guard them from instant danger. The father has never been qualified to teach his children, or train them to a system of principles and conduct. He too was destitute of the knowledge requisite for their instruction, himself having never learned. In the rising race, no respect for parents appears; no affectionate regard for their warning voice. No control of the passions is discoverable in words or actions, no self-denial, no quick compliance with the directions of a mother, nor of a father, unless from apprehended wrath which may burst into an incalculable storm. Who of us has not observed in the children of such circumstances, a ferocity and uncertainty at which the spectator recoils with indefinable apprehension for the consequences. Their motives to action are the feelings of the moment. These succeed each other with caprice unchastened by a wisdom which knows

their native and growing violence. Their menacing impulses strike the ear from any chord in all the wide diapason of the passions. Even in their sports a jarring and discordant harshness is felt, with sensations at once painful and portentous. Their resentments give evidence of revenge conceived, repressed perhaps by the fear of a power to revenge with superior force. In grief or joy, extremes still predominate, marked with sullen depression or violent transport. In intercourse they are gregarious rather than social. To strangers they look with suspicion: perhaps they fly with panic, suggesting anew whether Hobbes may not have been right in his inhuman doctrine, that 'a state of nature is a state of war.' To infant minds placed in this moral desert, no God occurs as the creator of the world, the disposer of events, an object of reverence, gratitude, love, obedience, or fear. Dismal superstitions crowd their thoughts of an invisible world. Witchcraft, and wandering ghosts, often fill their conversation with horror, and their bosoms with dismay. Conscience knows not its proper office, and becomes hardened in insensibility after being long ridiculed for its superstitious fears. The true God is hardly known to them as their heavenly Father, whose presence may encourage them in goodness, deter them from evil, and console them in distress. No Saviour is understood in his proper character, radiant with beams of mercy. No gospel of peace can find access into the bosom of one who cannot read its messages of grace, and who is surrounded by others equally excluded from them. No Spirit is known as a monitor of good, to soften the flinty heart, to dissolve it in the penitence of guilt, to enamor it with the beauties and glories of the Divine nature, and assimilate it to the pure and blissful atmosphere of the skies. To one thus destitute of opportunity and education, heaven is out of sight, and hell but a note in language, to which his voice and his ear have been tuned to give force to folly, or to vent the violence of the passions.'

The Appendix consists of several important papers, which are designed to show to the people of North Carolina the nature and character of the improvements in education in other states, derived from the Journal of Education, and reports and pamphlets published at the north on this subject.

The whole pamphlet of Pres. Caldwell is abundant in facts, and replete with interest; and would form a valuable addition to the library of every friend of common school instruction.

To the views of a republican citizen, we beg leave to add those of a British subject, (one we presume who stands near the throne,) on the same points, from a late Edinburgh Review.

'Those (if there are now any) who argue against the expediency of universal education, are not deserving of an answer. Those

who, admitting this, maintain that the supply of education should, like other articles of industry, be left to follow the demand, forget that here, demand and supply are necessarily co-existent and co-extensive; — that it is education which creates the want, which education only can satisfy. Those again who, conceding all this, contend that the creation and supply of this demand should be abandoned by the state to private intelligence and philanthropy, are contradicted both by reasoning and fact. This opinion, indeed, has been rarely advanced in all its comprehension. Even those (as Dr Adam Smith) who argue that the instruction of the higher orders should be left free to private competition, still admit that the interference of the state is necessary to ensure the education of the lower. All experience demonstrates this. No countries present a more remarkable contrast in this respect, than England and Germany. In the former, the state has done nothing for the education of the people, and private benevolence more than has been attempted elsewhere; in the latter, the government has done everything, and left to private benevolence almost nothing to effect. The English people are, however, the lowest, the German people the highest, in the scale of knowledge. All that Scotland enjoys of popular education above the other kingdoms of the British Empire, she owes to the State; and among the principalities of Germany, from Prussia down to Hesse-Cassel, education is uniformly found to prosper exactly in proportion to the extent of interference, and to the unremitted watchfulness of government. The general conclusion against the expediency of all public regulation of the higher instruction, is wholly drawn from particular instances of this regulation having been inexpediently applied. Even of these, the greater number are cases in which the state, having once conceded exclusive privileges under well-considered laws, never afterwards interposed to see that these laws were duly executed, and from time to time reformed, in accommodation to a change of circumstances. The English Universities, it is admitted, do not, as actually administered, merit their monopoly. But, from this example, we would not conclude, with Smith, that all privileged seminaries are detrimental. On the contrary, by showing that in Oxford and Cambridge the statutory constitution has been silently subverted, we should argue that their corruption does not originate in the law, but in its violation; and from the fact that, while now abandoned by the state to private abuse, they accomplish nothing in proportion to their mighty means, we should only maintain more strongly the necessity of public regulation and superintendence to enable them to accomplish everything. The interference of the government may sometimes, we acknowledge, be directly detrimental; and indirectly detrimental we hold

that it will always be, unless constant and systematic. The state may wisely establish, protect, and regulate; but unless it continue a watchful inspection, the protected establishment will soon degenerate into a public nuisance — a monopoly for merely private advantage. The experience of the last half century in Germany has indeed completely set at rest the question. For thirty years no German has been found to maintain the doctrine of Smith.' In their generous rivalry, the governments of that country have practically shown what a benevolent and prudent policy could effect for the university as for the school; and knowing what they have done, who is there will again maintain, that for education as for trade, the state can prevent evil, but cannot originate good?

'There are two countries in Europe which have excited the special wonder and commiseration of the honest German; — wonder at the neglect of the government — commiseration for the ignorance of the people. These countries are France and England. The following is the last sample we have encountered of these feelings.'

'THINGS INCREDIBLE IN CHRISTENDOM.

"England, in which country alone there are annually executed more human beings than in several other countries taken together, suffers two millions of her people to walk about in utter ignorance, and abandons education to speculation and chance, as a matter of merely private concernment; — we mean the elementary instruction of the lower orders, for learning there possesses as extensive, wealthy, noble, [and maladministered] establishments as are anywhere to be found upon the globe. According to the documents before us, it appears that out of a population of nine millions and a half, there are above *two millions* without schools for their children. In London, according to an accurate estimate, *one fourth* of the inhabitants are thus destitute. No wonder assuredly that crime is rife! In France, likewise, of fortyfour thousand *communes*, twentyfive thousand (more than a half) are without schools; since the restoration of the King, above four hundred cloisters have been re-established; but schools —— What a blessed contrast is presented to us by our German father-land!"'*

Such are the views of one who was born and trained under the influence of a proud monarchy, and a privileged aristocracy. We complain, and writhe, under the abuse of the Trollopes and the Hamiltons. What ought we to feel, and to fear, in view of the just reproaches which such a writer might cast upon us republicans, — boasting of our light and freedom — and yet leaving from one to two millions of the rising generation, in the darkness and slavery of ignorance!

* *Literaturzeitung fuer Deutschlands Volkschullehrer*, 1824, Qu. 4, p. 40.

Art. II. — Primary Education in Prussia.

We scarcely think of the subject announced in our title, without a painful emotion. We look beyond the Atlantic, at a kingdom, where early associations lead us to think of one great man, surrounded by millions of neglected and oppressed poor; and we see ample means of instruction, provided in the most careful manner, superintended by a large body of the ablest men, at the expense of the government. We find *every child* of proper age, among twelve millions of people, *at school*; and we find him learning branches which none but the wealthy in our own country can acquire. We look with admiration and delight; but our heart sinks within us, when we are drawn back to our own — 'happy' — 'favored' — 'enlightened' country, with an equal number of inhabitants—all of whom are to have a share in its government — and all admitted to be 'free and equal,' — and find *more than one million of our free children* without any means of instruction, and more than a million of adults for whom no institutions are provided, except schools, which would not be accepted for the peasant's children of Prussia! 'Enlightened' country! —surely we boast ourselves too much. But we will not indulge our feelings — we will endeavor to excite something corresponding in the minds of our readers; and we cannot do it better, than by presenting a full account of the schools of Prussia.

The French government in their recent attempt at reform, have laid aside all national jealousy, and false sense of dignity. They despised that spirit, which among us even, will not look at the account of an improved institution or system because it is 'foreign' — (a word that is repeated sometimes with the same emphasis as 'barbarian' seems to have been of old); and have sent deputations of distinguished men, to examine the moral and social institutions of other countries, in order to improve their own. Our own penitentiaries are believed to be superior to any in the world; and they sent commissioners hither to examine, and publish the results of their inquiries. In improving their schools, they employed one of the most distinguished literary men of France, Cousin, to visit the country, admitted by all who know it, to be superior to any other in the organization of its schools. The Edinburgh Review describes him as 'a profound and original thinker — a lucid and eloquent writer — a scholar equally at home in ancient and modern learning — a philosopher superior to all the prejudices of age or country, party or profession.' While the reviewers do not admit his religious opinions, they add — 'This work indeed recommends itself as one of the most unbiassed wisdom. Once persecuted by the priests, M. Cousin now fearlessly encounters the derision of another party, as the advocate of reli-

gious education; nor does the memory of national calamity or of personal wrong withhold him from pronouncing the Prussian government the most enlightened in Europe. He makes no attempt to soothe the vanity of his countrymen at the expense of truth; and his work is, throughout, a disinterested sacrifice of self to the importance of its subject. His ingenuity never tempts him into unnecessary speculation; practice already approved by its result is alone anxiously proposed for imitation, — relative and gradual.'

We have been almost ashamed to ask the question; and yet the cry sometimes raised, against 'foreign schools' and 'foreign articles,' by men whose expansion of mind ought to make them on such points, citizens of the world —has obliged us to ask ourselves— *Will our countrymen hear and attend to the testimony of such a man about 'foreign institutions'?* We hoped they would, and selected large portions from the report of Cousin for translation. Before the work was far advanced, we found ourselves anticipated by the Edinburgh Review, and therefore adopt the following account from that able advocate of general education. It will gladden the heart of the philanthropist—it must tinge the cheek of the American patriot.

Organization of Schools in Prussia.

'The following is, in few words, the mechanism of the administration of popular education: —

'If the universities belong exclusively to the state, and the schools of secondary instruction to the province, those of primary instruction pertain principally to the department and to the commune.*

'Every commune ought to have a school, even by the law of the state; the pastor of the place is the natural inspector of this school, along with a communal school committee of administration and superintendence of school committee — called '*Schulvorstand.*

'In urban communes, where there are several schools, and establishments for primary education of a higher pitch than the common country schools, the magistrates constitute, over the particular committees of the several schools, a superior committee, which superintends all these, and forms them into a harmonic system. This committee is named the School Commission.

'There is, moreover, at the principal place of the circle (*Kreis*) another inspector, whose sphere comprehends all the schools of the circle, and who corresponds with the local inspectors and committees. This new inspector, whose jurisdiction is more extensive, is likewise almost always an ecclesiastic. Among the Catholics, it is the dean. He has the title of *School-Inspector of the Circle.*

* Prussia is divided into *circles*, *departments* and *communes*, corresponding nearly to the large districts, counties, and towns of one of the United States.

'Thus the two first degrees of authority in the oganization of primary instruction are, in Prussia, as in the whole of Germany, ecclesiastical; but with these degrees, the ecclesiastical influence wholly terminates, and the political commences. The inspector of each circle corresponds with the council of each department, through its president. This regency, or council of department, has within it a number of departmental-councillors (*Regie rungs rathe*) charged with different functions, and among others a special councillor for the primary schools, styled *School councillor*. The officer is paid like the rest of his colleagues, and thus unites public instruction, with the ordinary departmental administration. For on the one side, he is nominated on the presentation of the Minister of Public Instruction, and on the other, immediately on his appointment, he becomes, in his quality of *School councillor*, part of the departmental council, and thereby comes into connection with the Minister of the Interior. The *School councillor* reports to the council, which decides by a majority. He also inspects the schools, animates and maintains the zeal of the *School inspectors*, of the *committee* and of the schoolmasters. The whole correspondence of the communal inspectors, and of the superior inspectors is addressed to him; and it is he who conducts all correspondence relative to the schools, in name of the council and through the president, with the provincial consistories and the school-board, as well as with the Minister of Public Instruction. In a word, the *School councillor* is the real director of primary education in each department.

'I do not here descend into any detail; I am only desirous of making you aware of the general mechanism of public instruction in Prussia. To recapitulate. — Primary instruction is communal and departmental, and, at the same time, is directed by the Minister of Public Instruction; a double character, derived, in my opinion, from the very nature of things, which requires equally the intervention of local authorities, and that of a higher hand, to vivify and animate the whole. This double character is represented in the *School councillor*, who makes part of the Council of Department, and belongs at once to the Ministry of the Interior, and to that of Public Instruction. Viewed on another side, all secondary instruction is dependent on the School Board, which makes part of the Provincial Consistory, and is nominated by the Minister of Public Instruction. All higher education, that of the universities, depends on the Royal Commissioner, who acts under the immediate authority of the minister. Nothing thus escapes the ministerial agency; and at the same time, every sphere of public instruction has in itself, a sufficient liberty of operation. The universities elect their authorities. The School Board proposes and superintends the pro-

fessors of the gymnasia, and is informed on all the matters of any consequence regarding primary instruction. The *School councillor*, with the council of regency, or rather the council of regency, on the report of the *School councillor*, and after considering the correspondence of the inspectors and the committees, decides the greater part of the affairs of the inferior instruction. The Minister, without involving himself in the endless details of popular education, makes himself master of the results, directs the whole by instructions emanating from the centre, and extending to every quarter the national unity. He does not continually intermeddle with the concerns of secondary instruction; but nothing is done without his confirmation, and he proceeds always on accurate and complete reports. It is the same with the universities; they govern themselves, but according to the laws which they receive. The professors elect their Deans and their Rectors; but they themselves are appointed by the Minister. In the last analysis, the aim of the whole organization of public instruction in Prussia is to leave details to the local authorities, and to reserve to the Minister and his council the direction and impulsion of the whole.'

The more interesting provisions of the law in reference to primary education are given at large; the others are abbreviated or omitted.

I. *Duty of Parents to send their Children to School.*

'In Prussia, as in the other states of Germany, this duty has been long enforced by law. The only title of exemption is the proof that a competent education is furnished to the child in private. The obligation commences at the end of the fifth (though not strictly enforced till the beginning of the seventh,) and terminates at the conclusion of the fourteenth year. None are admitted or dismissed from school before these ages, unless on examination and by special permission of the committee of superintendence. During this interval, no child can remain away from school unless for sufficient reasons, and by permission of the civil and ecclesiastical authority; and a regular census, at Easter and Michaelmas, is taken by the committees and municipal authorities, of all the children competent to school. Parents, tutors, and masters of apprentices, are bound to see that due attendance is given by the children under their care; and the schoolmasters must, in a prescribed form, keep lists of attendance, to be delivered every fortnight to the committees of superintendence. Not wholly to deprive parents, &c, of the labors of their children, the school hours are so arranged that a certain time each day is left free for their employment at home. Do parents, &c, neglect their responsibility in sending their children punctually to school? — counsel, remonstrance, punishments, always rising in severity, are applied; and if every means be ineffectual,

a special tutor or co-tutor is assigned to watch over the education of the children. Jewish parents who thus offend, are deprived of their civil privileges. To the same end the clergy, Protestant and Catholic, are enjoined to use their influence, to the extent and in the manner they may judge expedient. Their sermons on the opening of the schools, ought to inculcate the duty of parents to afford their children education, and to watch over their regular attendance, and may even contain allusion to the most flagrant examples of these obligations neglected; and they shall not admit any child to the conferences previous to confirmation and communion, without production of the certificates of education.'

In the case of necessitous parents, means are to be taken to enable them to send their children to school, by supplying them with clothing, books, and other materials of instruction.'

II. *Duty of each Commune (Gemeinde) to maintain, at its expense, a primary school.*

'Every commune, however small, must maintain an *elementary school*, complete or incomplete; that is to say, either fulfilling the whole complement of instruction prescribed by law, or its most essential parts. Every town must support *burgher schools*, one or more, according to its population. Petty towns of less than fifteen hundred inhabitants, and inadequate to the expense of a burgher school, are bound to have at least complete elementary schools. — In case a town cannot maintain separately, and in different tenements, an elementary and burgher school, it is permitted to employ the lower classes of the burgher as an elementary school; in like manner, but only in case of manifest necessity, it is allowed to use, as a burgher school, the lower classes of the gymnasium. In towns, the Jews may establish schools at their own expense, if organized, superintended, and administered by them in conformity to the legal provisions; they are likewise permitted to send their children to the Christian schools, but can have no share in their administration.

The first concern is to provide the elementary schools required in the country. When possible, incomplete schools are everywhere to be changed into complete; and this is imperative where two masters are required. To this end, the inhabitants of every rural commune are, under the direction of the public authorities, constituted into a *Country-school-union* (*Landschulverein*). This union is composed of all landed proprietors with or without children, and of all fathers of families domiciled within the territory of the commune with or without local property. Every village, with the adjacent farms, should have its school-union and its school; but in exception to this rule, but only as a temporary arrangement, two or more villages may unite: if, firstly, one commune be too poor to provide a school; if, secondly, none of the

associated villages be distant from the common school more than two (English) miles in level, and one mile in hilly districts; if, thirdly, there be no intervening swamps or rivers at any season difficult of passage; and, fourthly, if the whole children do not exceed a hundred. If a village, by reason of population of difference of religion, has already two schools for which it can provide, these are not to be united; especially if they belong to different persuasions. Circumstances permitting, separate schools are to be encouraged. Mere difference of religion should form no obstacle to the formation of a school union: but, in forming such an association of Catholics and Protestants, regard must be had to the numerical proportion of the inhabitants of each persuasion. The principal master should profess the faith of the majority, the subordinate master that of the minority.* Jews enjoy the advantages, but are not permitted to interfere in the administration of these schools. If, in certain situations, the junction of schools belonging to different persuasions be found expedient, this must take place by consent of the two parties. Care must, however, be taken, in case of junction, that each sect has the means necessary for the religious education of its scholars. That neither party may have cause of anxiety, and that whatever it contributes to the partnership may be secured in case of separation, the respective rights of the parties shall be particulately set forth, and ratified in a legal document.'

'The law having ordained the universal establishment of primary schools, goes on to provide for their support. This support consists in securing; 1. A suitable salary to the schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, and a retiring allowance when unable to discharge their functions; 2. A schoolhouse, with appurtenances, well laid out, maintained in good order, and properly heated; 3. The furniture, books, pictures, instruments, and means requisite for instruction and exercise; 4. The aid to be given to needy scholars. The *first* provision is solemnly recognised as of all the most important. The local authorities are enjoined to raise the schoolmaster's salary as high as possible. Though a general rule, rating the amount of emolument necessarily accruing to the office, cannot be established

* This liberality is general throughout Germany. If we are ever to enjoy the blessings of a national education in the United Kingdom, the same principle must be universally applied. An established church becomes a nuisance, when (as hitherto in England and Ireland) it interposes an obstacle to the universal diffusion of religion and intelligence. We trust that the boon conceded by our *late* monarch to his German dominions, may be extended under his successor, to the British Empire. By ordinance of George IV, dated Carlton House, 25th June 1822, in reference to education in the county of Lingen, it is decreed, (although the Protestant be the established religion,) that in all places where the majority of the inhabitants are Catholic, the principal school-master shall be of their persuasion. The Lutheran schools to be under inspection of the superintendent; the Catholic under that of the Archpriest: — both bound to visit the schools regularly, to examine school-ma ter and scholar, and to report to their respective consistories. — *Weingart's Journal*, 1822. Heft. 4, p. 21.)

for the whole monarchy, a minimum, relative to the prosperity of each province is to be fixed, and from time to time reviewed, by the provincial consistories. In regard to the *second*, — schoolhouses are to be in a healthy situation, of sufficient size, well aired, &c; hereafter, all to be built and repaired in conformity to general models. Attached, must be a garden of suitable size, &c, and applicable to the instruction of the pupils; and, when possible, before the school-house, a gravelled play-ground, and place for gymnastic exercises. The *third* provision comprises a complement of books for the use of master and scholar; according to the rank of the school, a collection of maps, and geographical instruments, models for drawing and writing, music, &c, instruments and collections for natural history and mathematics, the apparatus for gymnastic exercises, and where this is taught, the tools and machines requisite for technological instruction. In regard to the *fourth*, if there be no charity-school specially provided, every public school is bound to afford to the poor, instruction, wholly or in part gratuitous; as likewise the books and other necessaries of education.'

'But, as considerable funds are required for the maintenance of a school established on such extensive basis, it is necessary to employ all the means which place and circumstances afford. We cannot attempt to follow M. Cousin through this part of the law, however important and wisely calculated are its regulations. We shall state only in general, that it is recognised as a principle, that as the gymnasia and other establishments of public education of the same rank, are principally supported at the cost of the general funds of the state or province, so the inferior schools are primarily, and, as far as possible, solely, maintained at the expense of the towns, and of the country-school unions. The support of these schools is the highest civil obligation. In the towns it can be postponed to no other communal want; and in the country all landholders, tenants, fathers of families, must contribute in proportion to the rent of their property within the territory of the school-union, or to the produce of their industry, either in money or in kind. Over and above these general contributions, fees also, (*Schulgeld*,) regulated by the departmental authorities, are paid by the scholars, but not levied by the schoolmaster; unless, under particular circumstances, it be deemed expedient to commute this special payment into an augmentation of the general contribution.'

III. — *General Objects and different Degrees of Primary Education.*

'Two degrees of primary instruction are distinguished by the law; the *elementary schools* and the *burgher schools*. The elementary schools (*Elementarschulen*) propose the development of the human

faculties, through an instruction in those common branches of knowledge which are indispensable to the lower orders, both of town and country. The burgher schools (*Buergerschulen, Stadtschulen** carry on the child until he is capable of manifesting his inclination for a classical education, or for this or that particular profession. — The gymnasia continue this education until the youth is prepared, either to commence his practical studies in common life, or his higher and special scientific studies in the university.'

'These different gradations coincide in forming, so to speak, a great establishment of national education, one in system, and of which the parts, though each accomplishing a special end, are all mutually correlative. The primary education of which we speak, though divided into two degrees, has its peculiar unity and general laws; it admits of accommodation, however, to the sex, language, religion, and the future destination of the pupils. 1. Separate establishments for girls should be formed, wherever possible, corresponding to the elementary and larger schools for boys. 2. In those provinces of the monarchy (as the Polish) where a foreign language is spoken, besides lessons in the native idiom, the children shall receive complete instruction in German, which is also to be employed as the ordinary language of the school. 3. Difference of religion in Christian schools, necessarily determines differences in religious instruction. This instruction shall always be accommodated to the spirit and doctrines of the persuasion to which the school belongs. But, as in every school of a christian state, the dominant spirit (common to all creeds) should be piety, and a profound reverence of the Deity, every Christian school may receive the children of every sect. The masters and superintendents ought to avoid, with scrupulous care, every shadow of religious constraint or annoyance. No school should be abused to any purpose of proselytism; and the children of the worship different from that of the school, shall not be obliged, contrary to the wish of their parents or their own, to attend its religious instruction and exercises. Special masters of their own persuasion shall have the care of their religious education; and, should it be impossible to have as many masters as confessions, the parents should endeavor with so much the greater solicitude, to discharge this duty themselves, if disinclined to allow their children to attend the religious lessons of the school. Christian schools may admit Jewish children, but not Jewish schools Christian children. The primitive destination of every school, says the law, is so to train youth, that with a knowledge of the relations of man to God, it may foster in them the desire of ruling their life

*Called likewise *Mittelschulen*, middle schools, and *Realschulen*, real schools; the last, because they are less occupied with the study of languages (*Verbalia*) than with the knowledge of things. (*Realia.*)

by the spirit and principles of Christianity. The school shall, therefore, betimes, second and complete the first domestic training of the child to piety. Prayer and edifying reflections shall commence and terminate the day; and the master must beware that his moral exercise do never degenerate into a matter of routine. He must also see that the children are constant in their attendance on divine service — (with other regulations to a similar effect.) Obedience to the laws, loyalty, and patriotism, to be inculcated. No humiliating or indecent castigation allowed; and corporal punishment, in general, to be applied only in cases of necessity. Scholars found wholly incorrigible, in order to obviate bad example, to be at length dismissed. The pupils, as they advance in age, to be employed in the maintenance of good order in the school, and thus betimes habituated to regard themselves as active and useful members of society.'

'The primary education has for its scope the development of the different faculties, intellectual and moral, mental and bodily. Every *complete elementary school* necessarily embraces the nine following branches: — 1. Religion; — morality established on the positive truths of Christianity; — 2. The German tongue, and in the Polish provinces, the vernacular language; — 3. The elements of geometry and general principles of drawing; — 4. Calculation, and applied arithmetic; — 5. The elements of physics, of general history, and of the history of Prussia; — 6. Singing; — 7. Writing; — 8. Gymnastic exercises; — 9. The more simple manual labors, and some instruction in the relative country occupations. Every *burgher school* must teach the 10 following branches: — 1. Religion and morals; — 2. The German language, and the vernacular idiom of the province, reading, composition, exercises of style, exercises of talent, and the study of the national classics. In the countries of the German tongue, the modern foreign languages are the objects of an accessory study. 3. Latin to a certain extent.* 4. The elements of mathematics, and in particular a thorough knowledge of practical arithmetic. 5. Physics, and natural history to explain the more important phenomena of nature. 6. Geography, and general history combined; Prussia, its history, laws, and constitution, form the object of a particular study. 7. The principles of design; to be taught with the instruction given in physics, natural history, and geometry. 8. The penmanship should be watched, and the hand exercised to write with neatness and ease. 9. Singing, in order to develope the voice, to afford a knowledge of the art, and to enable the scholars to assist in the solemnities of the church. 10. Gymnastic exercises accommodated to the age

* This, we believe, is not universally enforced.

and strength of the scholar. — Such is the minimum of education, to be afforded by a burgher school. If its means enable it to attempt a higher instruction, so as to prepare the scholar, destined to a learned profession, for an immediate entrance into the gymnasium, the school then takes the name of *Higher Town School*, or *Progymnasium*.'

'Every pupil, on leaving school, should receive from his masters and the committee of superintendence, a certificate of his capacity, and of his moral and religious dispositions. These certificates to be always produced on approaching the communion, and on entering into apprenticeship or service. They are given only at the period of departure, and in the burgher schools, as in the gymnasia, they form the occasion of a great solemnity.'

'Every half year pupils are admitted; promoted from class to class; and absolved at the conclusion of their studies.'

'A special order will determine the number of lessons to be given daily and weekly upon each subject, and in every degree. No particular books are specified for the different branches in the primary schools; they are left free to adopt the best as they appear. For religious instruction in the Protestant schools, the Bible and catechisms. The younger scholars to have the Gospels and New Testament; the older the whole Scriptures. Books of study to be carefully chosen by the committees, with concurrence of the superior authorities, the ecclesiastical being specially consulted in regard to those of a religious nature. For the Catholic schools, the bishops, in concert with the provincial consistories, to select the devotional books; and, in case of any difference of opinion, the Minister of Public Instruction shall decide.'

'Schoolmasters are to adopt the method best accommodated to the natural development of the human mind; — methods which keep the intellectual powers in constant, general, and spontaneous exercise, and are not limited to the infusion of a mechanical knowledge.*

* The Bavarian *Lehrplanfuer die Volkschulen* is excellent on this point; and so, indeed, are all the German writers on education. The prevalent ignorance in our own country, even of the one fundamental principle of instruction — 'that every scholar must be his own teacher, or he will learn nothing;' in other words, that the *development* is precisely in proportion to the *exertion* of the faculty, — has been signally exposed, both through example and precept, by our townsman, Mr Wood; — a gentleman whose generous and enlightened devotion to the improvement of education entitles him to the warmest gratitude of his country. We have the high authority of Professor Pillans for stating, that in the parochial schools of Scotland, 'the principle *That a child, in being taught to read should be taught at the same time to understand what he reads*, is so far from being generally received, that the *very opposite*, if not openly avowed, is at least *invariably* acted on!' It cannot, we trust, be now long before the Scottish schoolmaster be sent himself to school. Scotland is, however, as far superior to England in her popular education, as inferior to Germany. And, considering in what a barbarous manner our schoolmasters are educated, examined, appointed, paid, and superintended, they have accomplished far more than could reasonably have been expected.

The committees are to watch over the methods of the master, and to aid him by their council; never to tolerate a vicious method, and to report to the higher authorities should their admonitions be neglected. Parents and guardians have a right to scrutinize the system of education by which their children are taught; and to address their complaints to the higher authorities, who are bound to have them carefully investigated. On the other hand they are bound to co-operate with their private influence in aid of the public discipline: nor is it permitted them to withdraw a scholar from any branch of education taught in the school as necessary.'

'As a national establishment, every school should court the greatest publicity. In those for boys, besides the special half yearly examinations, for the promotion from one class to another, there shall annually take place public examinations, in order to exhibit the spirit of the instruction, and the proficiency of the scholars. On this solemnity, the director, or one of the masters, in an official program, is to render an account of the condition and progress of the school. In fine, from time to time, there shall be published a general report of the state of education in each province. In schools for females, the examinations to take place in presence of the parents and masters, without any general invitation.'

'But if the public instructors are bound to a faithful performance of their duties, they have a right, in return, to the gratitude and respect due to the zealous laborer in the sacred work of education. The school is entitled to claim universal countenance and aid, even from those who do not confide to it their children. All public authorities, each in its sphere, are enjoined to promote the public schools, and to lend support to the masters in the exercise of their office, as to any other functionaries of the state. In all the communes of the monarchy, the clergy of all Christian persuasions, whether in the church, in their school visitations, or in their sermons on the opening of the classes, shall omit no opportunity of reminding the schools of their high mission, and the people of their duties to these establishments. The civil authorities, the clergy, and the masters, shall everywhere co-operate in tightening the bonds of respect and attachment between the people and the school; so that the nation may be more and more habituated to consider education as a primary condition of civil existence, and daily take a deeper interest in its advancement.'

Such is the account of a system of schools acknowledged to be the best in the world, given by a distinguished philosopher, and adopted by one of the ablest advocates of education. May we not hope, that even its foreign origin will not entirely prevent its influence, in exciting and directing American zeal?

Art. III. — Address of the Georgia Convention of Teachers.

We have noticed several times the formation of a Teacher's Society, at Milledgeville, Georgia, in Dec. 1831, with whose minutes we have been favored. The pamphlet contains an address by a committee of the convention, from which we long since marked a series of extracts for insertion in this work. We are not willing to close our volume without presenting to our readers this expression of opinion and feeling on the subject of education, from some of its warmest friends in that portion of our country.

After some introductory remarks, the committee speak, in language to which our feelings fully respond, of the importance of giving more extended education to our youth *as citizens.*

'Notwithstanding our favorite national motto, that *Intelligence is the life of Liberty*, have we, as a nation, taken all the necessary steps that this intelligence might keep pace with our population, and with the improvements of the age? While improvements in the various arts and sciences are rapidly progressing — while labor-saving machines are multiplying the productive industry of man a thousand fold, and putting within his reach, many of the comforts and conveniences and luxuries of life, of which he was formerly ignorant, what, comparatively speaking, has been done to diffuse the richer blessings of knowledge, and to bring to every man's door the luxuries of a well cultivated mind? While we discard the notions of feudal aristocracy, and proclaim to the world that 'all men are by nature, and of right ought to be free,' while we trumpet abroad the great principle of our republican institutions, that the humblest citizen is, by birth, entitled to all the privileges and immunities of the most exalted, have we taken all the necessary steps to secure him real liberty? Have we not left the great mass of our citizens under the impression that any considerable advances in the acquisition of literature and science must be confined to the few who have wealth and leisure.

'We seem to consider the light of science as too bright for vulgar eyes, and her paths too devious and leading too far away from the beaten track of common life, to be trodden by the feet of the ignoble. The union of knowledge with the common occupations of industry is considered, not only unnecessary, but even impossible. Hence, the too prevalent opinion that a very moderate share of information is sufficient for the man who is to engage in the common pursuits of life. Hence, talents of the highest order, and intellects of the finest mould, are buried and lost — lost both to their possessors and to the country. Who can estimate the amount of intellectual power which is thus lost to our country? Who can calculate the sum of happiness which is thus denied to man? Should not the treasures which are locked up in the minds of millions of our countrymen be brought forth? Should not 'science be called from her hitherto proud and

almost inaccessible heights, to be the companion and cheerer of the lowliest toil and of the humblest fireside?' Should not every farmer in our country be well acquainted with the nature and properties of that soil from which he derives his daily support? Should not every mechanic be able to illumine his shop with a torch lighted from the altar of science, and to cheer the labors of the day as well as to enliven the hours of night with reflections drawn from the depths of philosophic research?

'When we look at the means which have been invented for the communication of knowledge, ought not men, who are now engaged in the arduous occupations of agriculture and commerce and manufactures, to make greater advances in the acquisition of useful information than the student was formerly able to make when entirely devoted to learning? Must the great mass of our citizens be confined in their education to reading and writing of their language, and to the art of casting common accounts?'

They next describe the actual state of education, in terms which too fully confirm our former statements.

'Alas! how far should we be elevated above our present level, if all of them were thus enlightened! But how many sons and daughters of free born Americans are unable to read their native language! How many go to the polls, who are unable to read the very charter of their liberties! How many, by their votes, elect men to legislate upon their dearest interests, while they themselves are unable to read even the proceedings of those legislators whom they have empowered to act for them!

'We would not degrade our own state by an invidious comparison with others more favored, but we must acknowledge, that with all its advantages and with all the patriotism of its generous and high minded citizens, little has yet been effectually done on the subject of general education. We are not only behind many of our sister states, but much farther, we fear, than is necessary, making every allowance for the many disadvantages under which we have labored.'

The inquiry why this gross deficiency exists in public education, is then answered, and another proposed.

'Our Legislature has not been wanting in making those appropriations which were shown to be necessary for the support of institutions of learning throughout the state. Where then, it may be asked, is the fault? We answer, In the organization and management of our schools.

'In the first place, our common school system is evidently deficient; or rather, our entire want of a common school system is most deplorably felt throughout all the departments of education. The want of correct elementary instruction exists not only in this state, but throughout the United States. We seem to forget that first principles are, in education, all important principles; that primary schools are the places where these principles are to be established, and where

such direction will, in all probability, be given to the minds of our children as will decide their future character in life. Hence the idle, and the profane, and the drunken, and the ignorant, are employed to impart to our children the first elements of knowledge — are set before them as examples of what literature and science can accomplish! And hence the profession of the school-master, which should be the most honorable, is but too often a term of reproach.

'Now should not some step be taken by the citizens of our state to raise the standard of this profession, and wipe off this stigma from our character, so far at least as to make *his* employment honorable *who* is to be the instructor of our youth in knowledge, and who should be their guide and pattern in morals? The importance of well educated instructors is acknowledged by all; and yet how many who are altogether incompetent are found in this profession? How many are intrusted with the minds and morals of our children, whom we would not intrust with a small portion of our property? These things ought not so to be, and yet so they will remain, unless the community at large is aroused upon the subject. And if the occasional assembling of teachers in convention from different parts of the state, shall bring the minds of our citizens to bear upon this subject as it ought, an important point will have been gained. For whenever the people of the state are aroused, the Legislature will act; whenever such plans are devised as the people themselves believe ought to be adopted, the Legislature will not fail to meet the views of their constituents — they will not hesitate to carry into effect what they know to be the wish of a vast majority of the citizens of the state.

'That some more systematic plan should be adopted for the establishment and support of common schools, is a truth acknowledged by all. Many poor men have it not in their power to send their children to any school; they are not able to board them from home, or even to pay the low tuition of our imperfect common schools. Is it good policy to leave so many of our citizens without the means of obtaining a useful education? Is it consistent with our republican principles to put into the hands of a part of our people so powerful a weapon as that of knowledge, while the rest are left without its mighty influence? Rail as we may against the aristocracy of other countries, there is no aristocracy so perfect as that of wealth and knowledge. Those who monopolize the knowledge of a country, will be its governors in fact, whatever may be the constitution and laws.

'We have already adverted to the want of competency and character in teachers, as a prominent and general cause of the low state of literature in our common schools. This, we apprehend, is owing, principally, to two causes; remove these and the evil is remedied. First, the labors of the teacher are not sufficiently rewarded. Every body, who knows anything of the matter, knows that the labors of the school master are arduous and vexatious in a high degree. It ought not, therefore, to be expected that men of talents and acquirements will engage in them, unless their services are properly com-

pensated. Let the office be desirable in point of emolument, and as a matter of course, there will be secured to fill it, men of such character as will make it respectable. Secondly, the opposition on the part of parents to the exercise of salutary discipline over their children, is, without doubt, a cause that operates extensively in making the common schools generally as worthless as they are.

'Theorize as we may, and indulge as we please in chimerical speculations contrary to the scripture truth by the mouth of Solomon, we cannot subvert it. Often have we seen men of but inferior native minds, and very moderate attainments, mainly by the force of energetic discipline, establish a high reputation as instructors. On the contrary, it has come under our observation once and again, that men possessing talents of a high order, and those talents well cultivated, were, in the capacity of teachers, for want of discipline alone, worse than worthless. Any man of moderate attainments may be a valuable teacher, if to assiduity in imparting instruction, he join faithfulness in administering the requisite discipline. Without this, we believe it impossible for the highest talents that were ever possessed by man, to constitute a good teacher of youth. Now as long as the exercise of faithful discipline puts the teacher in danger of incurring the displeasure of affectionate but misjudging parents, and thereby losing that patronage which is necessary to procure him his daily bread, it would be passing strange, if, in this selfish and degenerate world, many should be found possessing moral courage and principle sufficient to make them run all risks in the conscientious discharge of duty. Hence so many unprincipled and time-serving pedagogues, whose grand object seems to be, to win the affections of weak parents, by indulging their children to their injury. They aim at popularity in this way, that they may have it in their power to pocket the money of their patrons, while they are conscious that they do not render them an equivalent in the progress of their pupils. To remedy this extensive evil, those teachers should be supported, and those only, who will faithfully perform their duty in discipline as well as instruction. We impose upon ourselves, if we imagine, that ever our common schools will be of much value until there is a radical change in public sentiment and public practice on this point.

'In conclusion, we would urge upon the friends of education throughout the state, and particularly upon teachers, to endeavor to place the profession at once where as it ought always to have stood, as high at least to any other of the liberal professions.'

Such is the language of the friends of education from every quarter of the Union, in regard to the only mode of improving our schools; and such is a fair specimen of the accounts given of its condition in the greater part of this 'free and enlightened nation.' When will statesmen, and patriots, and christians devote to this subject some portion of the zeal, and eloquence, and effort which is wasted in a war of words — or on questions of a day?

Art. IV. — Citizen's or Middle Schools.

In the address of the Teachers' Convention of Georgia, the committee advert to the necessity of providing, for the electors of a republic, something more of education than *the mere elements* which are taught in a primary school. It is said indeed by some, that there have been many eminent men among us who have had no more; — and who have still surpassed all their 'well educated' cotemporaries. But have we a right to infer, that because a few superior minds, (as these are allowed to be,) have arisen in spite of this want, others must be neglected. We often find exquisite fruit upon wild plants. Is it therefore unnecessary to cultivate our gardens?

But the point is conceded — is *urged* — by most of the friends of education. Universal education — the power of acquiring such knowledge as shall qualify them to discharge rationally, and in the best manner, the duties of a man and a citizen — *is claimed as a right*, by a large and growing party in our country. We regret that they should attempt to monopolize the name of 'working men,' while their labors are the source of health and wealth; and yet denounce as 'drones' and 'non-producers,' not only those who supply them, by their incessant activity of mind, with the opportunity and the instruments of labor, but even those whose labors procure for themselves neither strength nor property, and often destroy both. We regret still more, that so many who seek the elevation of the manual laborers of our country, carry their views of mental independence so far as to revolt against the King of Kings, and proclaim themselves enemies to 'property, marriage and religion.' But while their views as a party, like those of most parties, are sadly marked with human imperfection, we have already announced our accordance with them in their declaration, that A REPUBLICAN GOVERNMENT IS BOUND TO PROVIDE FOR THE EDUCATION OF EVERY CITIZEN.

Those who think their claims dangerous or unreasonable on some points, should be most anxious to satisfy all which are reasonable, for power is passing rapidly into their hands.*

On this subject also we shall avail ourselves of foreign testimony from some of the most enlightened and able statesmen of England and France — in the hope that the *citizens of a republic* may be deemed worthy of that knowledge which is considered *necessary* to the *subjects of a monarchy*.

* That the word 'equal' is added to '*universal* education,' seems to us to evince a want of *thorough* attention to the subject; for education can never be 'equal' (=) in the strict sense, for any two professions. It can only be so in reference to the object of education. Each must be equally well prepared for the employment he adopts, and the duties before him.

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tom of a veritable want, the indication of an important chasm in our system of public education. You are well aware that I am a zealous defender of classical and scientific studies ; not only do I think that it is expedient to keep up our collegiate plan of studies, more especially the philological department of that plan, but I am convinced that it ought to be strengthened and extended ; and thereby, always maintaining our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, to be able to emulate Germany in the solidity of our classical instruction. In fact, classical studies are, beyond comparison, the most essential of all, conducing, as they do, to the knowledge of our humanity, which they consider under all its mighty aspects and relations: here, in the language and literature of nations who have left behind a memorable trace of their passage on the earth ; there, in the pregnant vicissitudes of history, which continually renovate and improve society ; and finally, in philosophy, which reveals to us the simple elements, and the more uniform organization of that wondrous being, which history, literature, and languages successively clothe in forms the most diversified, and yet always relative to some more or less important part of its internal constitution. Classical studies maintain the sacred tradition of the intellectual and moral life of our humanity. To enfeeble them would, in my eyes, be an act of barbarism, an attempt against true civilization, and in a certain sort, the crime of lese-humanity. May our royal colleges then, and a large proportion of our communal, continue to introduce into the sanctuary the flower of our French youth. But the whole population of this country — can it, ought it, to enter our colleges ?

In France, primary education is but scanty ; and between this education and that of our colleges there is a blank. Hence it follows that every father of a family, even in the lower part of the bourgeoisie, who has the honorable desire of bestowing a suitable education on his sons, can only do so by sending them to college. Serious inconveniences are the result. In general, these young men, who are not conscious of a lofty destination, prosecute their studies with little assiduity ; and when they return to the profession and habits of their family, as nothing in the routine of their ordinary life occurs to recall and keep up their college studies, a few years are sure to obliterate the smattering of classical knowledge they possessed. They also frequently contract at college, acquaintances and tastes which make it almost impossible to accommodate themselves again to the humble condition of their parents. Hence a race of restless men, discontented with their lot, with others and with themselves ; enemies of a social order, in which they do not feel themselves in their place, and ready, with some acquirements, talents more or less solid, and an unbridled ambition, to throw themselves into all the paths, either of servility or revolt. Our colleges should undoubtedly remain open to all, but we ought not to invite into them all classes, without discretion ; and this we do, unless we establish institutions intermediate between the primary schools and the colleges. Germany, and Prussia in particular, are rich in establishments of this kind.

I have already described several in detail, those of Francfort, Wei-

Lord Brougham, and the distinguished philanthropists who compose the London Society for the diffusion of useful knowledge, are consecrating great talents and laborious efforts, and a large amount of expenditure, to the single object of giving to the people at large, more extended and elevated means of self instruction. The Edinburgh Review, which is understood to employ the pen of Brougham on the subject of education, observes: —

'Intelligence is the condition of freedom; and unless an Education Bill extend to the enfranchised million an ability to exercise with judgment the rights the Reform Bill has conceded, the people must still, we fear, remain as they have ever been, the instruments, the dupes, the victims of presumptuous or unprincipled ambition.'

Is the intelligence necessary for this purpose secured to the laboring classes of the community by merely giving them the key to books — pressed as they now are, even in this country, by the necessity of unremitting labor to meet the demands of necessity, or the urgency and bustle of business? We cannot believe it. How many merchants, even, find time for reading? In regard to the effects of extended instruction, Adam Smith observes: —

'The more they are instructed, the less liable are they to the delusions of enthusiasm and superstition, which among ignorant nations frequently occasion the most dreadful disorders. An instructed, intelligent people, besides, are always more decent and orderly than an ignorant and stupid one. They feel themselves, each individually, more respectable and more likely to obtain the respect of their lawful superiors; and they are therefore more disposed to respect those superiors. They are more disposed to examine and more capable of seeing through the interested complaints of faction and sedition, &c.'

Cousin, in his late report to the French minister, not only confirms these views, but proposes a means of accomplishing them. We present his remarks entire, for the perusal of our readers. They contain much that applies to distinctions in society, which do not exist among us; but we hope that on this very account they may have more influence on those, who, even in this country, dread the effects of knowledge upon the people.

'Have you not also been struck with the demands of a great many towns, large and small, for schools superior to the common primary schools, and in which the instruction, without attempting to emulate our royal and communal colleges in classical and scientific studies, should devote a more particular attention to objects of a more general utility? These are indispensable to that numerous class of the population, which, without entering into the learned professions, finds, however, the want of a more extensive and varied culture than the lower orders, strictly so called—the peasants and artizans. The towns every where call out for such establishments; several municipal councils have voted considerable funds for this purpose, and have addressed themselves to you, in order to obtain the necessary authorization, assistance, and advice. Here it is impossible not to observe the symp-

tom of a veritable want, the indication of an important chasm in our system of public education. You are well aware that I am a zealous defender of classical and scientific studies; not only do I think that it is expedient to keep up our collegiate plan of studies, more especially the philological department of that plan, but I am convinced that it ought to be strengthened and extended; and thereby, always maintaining our incontestable superiority in the physical and mathematical sciences, to be able to emulate Germany in the solidity of our classical instruction. In fact, classical studies are, beyond comparison, the most essential of all, conducing, as they do, to the knowledge of our humanity, which they consider under all its mighty aspects and relations: here, in the language and literature of nations who have left behind a memorable trace of their passage on the earth; there, in the pregnant vicissitudes of history, which continually renovate and improve society; and finally, in philosophy, which reveals to us the simple elements, and the more uniform organization of that wondrous being, which history, literature, and languages successively clothe in forms the most diversified, and yet always relative to some more or less important part of its internal constitution. Classical studies maintain the sacred tradition of the intellectual and moral life of our humanity. To enfeeble them would, in my eyes, be an act of barbarism, an attempt against true civilization, and in a certain sort, the crime of lese-humanity. May our royal colleges then, and a large proportion of our communal, continue to introduce into the sanctuary the flower of our French youth. But the whole population of this country — can it, ought it, to enter our colleges?

In France, primary education is but scanty; and between this education and that of our colleges there is a blank. Hence it follows that every father of a family, even in the lower part of the bourgeoisie, who has the honorable desire of bestowing a suitable education on his sons, can only do so by sending them to college. Serious inconveniences are the result. In general, these young men, who are not conscious of a lofty destination, prosecute their studies with little assiduity; and when they return to the profession and habits of their family, as nothing in the routine of their ordinary life occurs to recall and keep up their college studies, a few years are sure to obliterate the smattering of classical knowledge they possessed. They also frequently contract at college, acquaintances and tastes which make it almost impossible to accommodate themselves again to the humble condition of their parents. Hence a race of restless men, discontented with their lot, with others and with themselves; enemies of a social order, in which they do not feel themselves in their place, and ready, with some acquirements, talents more or less solid, and an unbridled ambition, to throw themselves into all the paths, either of servility or revolt. Our colleges should undoubtedly remain open to all, but we ought not to invite into them all classes, without discretion; and this we do, unless we establish institutions intermediate between the primary schools and the colleges. Germany, and Prussia in particular, are rich in establishments of this kind.

I have already described several in detail, those of Francfort, Wei-

mar, Leipsic; and they are consecrated by the Prussian law of 1819. You are aware that I speak of what are called Burgher-schools *(Buergerschulen,)* a word which accurately contradistinguishes them from the Learned Schools, called in Germany Gymnasia, and with us Colleges; a name in other respects honorable to the bourgeoisie, who are not degraded by attending these schools, and to the people, who are thus elevated to the bourgeoisie. The Burgher or citizen's schools constitute the higher degree of primary instruction, of which the Elementary schools are the lower. There are thus only two degrees: 1. the *Elementary-school,* which is the common basis of all popular education in town and country; 2. The *Burgher or citizen's school,* which, in towns of every size where there exists a middle class, affords to all those who are not destined for the learned professions, an education sufficiently extensive and liberal.* The Prussian Law which fixes a maximum for the instruction of the Elementary school, fixes also a minimum for that of the Burgher-school; and there are two very different examinations, in order to obtain the license of primary teacher in these several degrees. The Elementary school ought to be one; for it represents, and is destined to foster and confirm, the national unity, and, in general, it is not right that the limit fixed by law for the instruction in the Elementary school should be overpassed. But the case is different in the Burgher-school, as this is destined for a class essentially different, the middle class; and it should naturally be able to rise in accommodation to the higher circumstances of that class in the more important towns. Thus it is that in Prussia, the Burgher or citizen's school has various gradations, from the minimum fixed by law, with which I have made you acquainted, up to that higher degree where it is connected with the Gymnasium, properly so denominated, and thus sometimes obtains the name of *Progymnasium.* I transmit you an instruction relative to the different progymnasia in the department of Munster; you will there see, that these establishments are, as the title indicates, preparatory gymnasia, where the classical and scientific instruction stops within certain limits, but where the Burgher class can obtain a truly liberal education. In general, the German Burgher-schools, somewhat inferior to our Colleges in classical and scientific studies, are incomparably superior to them in what is taught of religion, geography, history, the modern languages, music, drawing, and national literature.

In my opinion, it is of the highest importance, to establish in France, by one name or other, Burgher-schools, under various modifications, and to remodel to this form a certain number of our Communal Colleges. I regard this, sir, as an affair of State. Let it not be said that we have already various degrees of primary instruction in France, and that what I require has been already provided. There is nothing of the kind; we have three degrees, it is true, but ill-defined; the distinction is therefore naught. These three degrees are an arbitrary classification, the principle of which I do not pretend to comprehend; while the two degrees determined by the Prussian law are

* See Art. II., p. 556 — 558.

manifestly founded on the nature of things. Finally, comprehending these two degrees within the circle of primary education, it is not unimportant to distinguish and characterise them by different names; but these names — schools of the third, second, and first degree — mark nothing but abstract differences; they speak not to the imagination, and make no impression on the intellect. In Prussia, the names, Elementary School and Burgher-school, as representing the inferior and superior degrees of primary instruction, are popular. That of Middle-school is also employed in some parts of Germany, — a name which might, perhaps, be conveniently adopted by us. That, and Elementary School, would comprehend the two essential degrees of primary instruction; and our primary, normal schools would furnish masters equally for both degrees; for whom, however, there should be two kinds of examinations, and two kinds of licenses. There would remain for you only to fix a minimum for the Middle-school, as you would undoubtedly do for the Elementary School; taking care to allow the several departments gradually to surpass their minimum, according to their resources and their success.

'This is what appears to me substantially contained in all the petitions addressed to you by the towns, whether to change the subjects taught in our communal colleges; whether to add to the classical and scientific instruction afforded in our royal colleges, other courses of more general utility; whether, in fine, to be allowed schools which they know not how to name, and which more than once they have denominated *Industrial Schools*, in contradistinction to our colleges. — Care must be taken not to weaken the classical studies of our colleges; on the contrary, I repeat it, they ought to be strengthened. We should avoid the introduction of two descriptions of pupils into our colleges; this is contrary to all good discipline, and would unavoidably injure the more difficult studies to the profit of the easier. Neither is it right to give the name of industrial schools, to schools in which the pupils are not supposed to have any particular vocation. The people feel only their wants; it belongs to you, sir, to make choice of the means by which these wants are to be satisfied. A cry is raised from one extremity of France to the other, demanding for three-fourths of the French nation, establishments intermediate between the simple Elementary Schools and the Colleges. The prayers are urgent; they are almost unanimous. Here again is a point of the very highest importance, on which it would be easy to dilate. The general prayer, numerous attempts more or less successful, call out for a law, and render it at once indispensable and easy.'*

The same demands are extensively made in our own country; and most of the arguments which make it *expedient* to listen to them in a monarchy, render it the *duty* of a republic to satisfy them. When will this demand be listened to in our halls of legislation; and who will be the American Brougham, to advocate its justice?

* From the Edinburgh Review.

Art. V. — Bartlett's School Manual.

The National School Manual, a regular and connected course of Elementary Studies, embracing the necessary and useful branches of Common Education. In four parts, compiled from the latest and most approved Authors. By M. R. Bartlett.

We have to regret an involuntary delinquency in reference to the work before us. It is one of the 'nostrums' in education; and like many other nostrums, the 'directions' as well as the structure of the work itself, prescribes a certain 'dose' to be taken morning, noon, and night' — by all children, and in every state of mind. It differs from most of these, however, in giving a variety of articles in succession. Every volume is divided into portions, each of which contains assorted lessons of all kinds to follow each other. A dose of spelling is to be succeeded by a second of reading, a third of writing, a fourth of arithmetic, a fifth of grammar, and a sixth of geography — with a due addition of geometry, rhetoric and political economy. To adopt the professional style,—'Each dose so carefully prepared, and so accurately measured, that it is exactly adapted to the capacity of every child and every master, and precisely calculated to operate in half an hour, and prepare the way for the next — at all seasons of the year, and in all states of the constitution. ☞ N. B. No poisonous ingredients, and no pains to master or pupil from the operation.'

We are disgusted with such quackery, above all when applied to free, voluntary and thinking beings. We placed these books, two years since, in the hands of one of our most able and experienced instructors, whose decease we have to lament, in order that they might be thoroughly examined and reviewed. But his engagements, like those of most who love the cause, were too pressing to allow this. Our sense of responsibility compels us to enter our protest against it while we have the opportunity, and for this purpose we shall avail ourselves of the accounts of those who have examined them thoroughly. One of these accounts is found in a note to the anniversary discourse of B. F. Butler, Esq., before the Albany Institute, in 1830; and the other, in a well written article from the pen of one competent to judge, first published in the New York Evening Post.

The origin of the work is thus described in the Evening Post:

'We learn that a few years ago, an eminent person in the State of New York encouraged the author of the National School Manual to undertake this work; that a liberal patron of learning largely assisted him to carry it on; that he petitioned the legislature of New York that his

books might, indeed should be, used in all schools which the public school fund contributed to support; and though the legislature thought fit to leave open a door for improvement in the province of school-books, yet an enterprising book-seller, presuming upon the competency of Mr Bartlett for the function he had taken upon himself, offered that gentleman a large sum for the copy-right of his valuable books, which he was to complete, and moreover to disseminate, with all the address and industry in his power. It may be that just criticism can anticipate the use of these books, and can prevent an expensive experiment which will impoverish the public mind, in exact proportion as it enriches the projectors of the enterprise.'

The petition of Mr Bartlett to the legislature of New York was referred to a committee, 'fortunately composed,' as Mr Butler remarks, 'of members who felt the deep importance of the subject, and therefore gave it a most careful consideration.' The report, from the pen of Luther Bradish, Esq. is published by Mr Butler. After some general remarks on the importance of education and the impolicy of granting to individuals rights common to all, they discuss the question of expense. They next go on to describe the character of the work, and examine *the principles* on which it is founded.

'The committee have examined, with great care, the work in question, as far as it is as yet published, and has been submitted to them. They have also had the advantage of repeated personal interviews with its compiler, and have received from him minute and full explanations of the plan, details and execution of the work; but they have been unable to discover in it that peculiar and transcendent merit which only could justify them in recommending the passage of the law asked for, or the introduction of the work into our common schools, even at an expense much less than that which the passage of such a law would involve. On the contrary, they feel themselves constrained by a sense of duty to this house, and to the people of this state, to say, that the work, in their opinion, contains many material and important defects — defects not merely of detail, but of principle. Your committee are aware that, in expressing this opinion of this work, they encounter the influence of strong recommendations in its favor, and array themselves in opposition to the authority of high and respectable names. But they know the facility with which even the most respectable recommendations are often obtained; and feel bound, in charity, even to believe that those in this case, as is stated in most of them, and as is apparent in all, have been given, either upon the authority of others, or from a very cursory and imperfect examination of the work. But if it be otherwise, your committee, while they entertain all proper deference for those respectable gentlemen who have thus lent the sanction of their names to this work; and yield to their opinions in this case, all the authority to which, under the circumstances, they may be entitled, they cannot permit either the one or the other to dissuade them from a fearless and faithful discharge of their duty.

'The work in question claims to be a substitute for all others now used in our common schools. It commences with the alphabet, and when completed, it is pretended will contain the necessary instruction upon the following subjects: spelling, pronunciation, reading, elocution, arithmetic, grammar, rhetoric, prosody, geometry, mensuration, mechanical powers,

book-keeping, geography, biography, history, natural sciences, law, government, and several other collateral matters. It will be readily perceived, that the range of this work is no less extensive than its plan is singular. Its peculiar feature and professed distinctive excellence are, that in a series of lessons, comprising an entire course of common school education, it presents at every stage of the scholar's progress through this course, a collection of lessons collaterally arranged, and suited to his attainments and capacity at that point of time.

'From a careful examination of the work, the committee do not think that in its execution this professed and important object has been attained. On the contrary, they find the work exceedingly defective in its execution, in this fundamental principle. They find brought together, to be presented to the scholar at the same time, lessons which suppose very different attainments, and which require very different degrees of capacity. Your committee also cannot but consider this feature of the plan of the work as deceptive. They cannot but think that the placing together upon the same page, or in the same part of the work, lessons upon a great variety of subjects, would, in practice, be found, to say the least, exceedingly inconvenient. It compels the scholar to look through several volumes for the whole of any one subject of his studies. But it is apprehended that this would be found not merely inconvenient in use, but would lead to serious mischiefs. It destroys that simplicity of arrangement necessary to distinctness of impression, so desirable and so useful in every system of education. The want of these would lead necessarily to confusion, and could not fail to retard instead of accelerating the scholar's progress.

'Your committee do not doubt that, under the direction of a discreet and judicious teacher, the studies of the scholars may be not only agreeably but usefully diversified. That variety may not only relieve the monotony and tediousness of exclusive confinement to a single study, but promote that elasticity of intellect which is favorable to the scholar's general progress; but such variety should be admitted with caution and judgment. Your committee attach little value to those modern discoveries, or patent modes of instruction, which make philosophers of children;— men of literature and science, in a dozen lessons; or profess to bring the scholar acquainted with the whole circle of human knowledge almost without effort. They neither know, nor believe in, but one mode of becoming *learned* and *wise:* time, attention, and persevering study only can accomplish this.'

They next present objections still more decisive on the score of its execution.

'Your committee are also of opinion that the compiler of this work has not succeeded in its execution, in other important particulars. They cannot approve the system of pronunciation adopted by him. The representation of the sounds of letters by a different combination of letters, instead of conventional marks or figures, leads to confusion, and is, therefore, highly objectionable. This effect might not be produced in the mind of the scholar already considerably advanced, but in that of one learning orthography, it could not fail to be the case. The committee say nothing of the compiler's manner of spelling or pronouncing particular words, in which he does not seem to follow any one known standard or acknowledged authority; nor is he even uniformly consistent with himself. They also forbear to notice particularly the frequent and unnecessary repetition of the same lessons; the numerous errors in orthography, pronunciation or accent, which may be found on almost every page of the work.

'In the reading department of this work, your committee are of opinion, that the compiler has been but very little more successful. He has not been judicious in the selection of his lessons in this part of his work. Many of these, especially the early ones, are exceedingly objectionable. In aiming to render them simple and intelligible, they have been made ungrammatical and even vulgar. These, together with the grammatical errors which are found in every part of the work, are calculated to make wrong impressions and form bad habits, at a period of life when impressions are strong, and habits of thought and modes of expression once formed and established are apt to endure. The committee cannot forbear here to notice the manner in which the compiler, in this part of his work, frequently draws from other sources, without either indicating, or in any way giving credit to the authors from whom he thus borrows. They notice, with still stronger disapprobation, the changes and mutilations made in many beautiful and familiar passages of the most admired and classical authors in the language. This is treading on holy ground. It is warring with the dead. It is changing that cherished identity — and marring that admired beauty which have been rendered sacred by time, and have become consecrated in the affections of every true lover of letters, and of every friend of justice. These things also lead the youthful mind into error, and cannot be too severely discountenanced.

'The committee forbear to enter further into a minute criticism of this work. They would, however, observe, that the treatises on grammar, rhetoric, arithmetic, geometry and mensuration, which it contains, have appeared to them meagre in their matter, deficient in illustration, and wanting often clearness and precision. The language and style of the work generally want that purity and correctness indispensable to every school-book.

'The committee cannot accord to this work, the merit of economy, which is claimed for it. They feel confident that its use would fully verify the correctness of their opinion upon this point.'

It will be interesting to our readers to see some evidences of the justice of these opinions, presented in the Evening Post. The following are illustrations of its defects in spelling and pronounciation:

'The manner in which Mr Bartlett illustrates the pronunciation of words appears to us as little intelligible as the words themselves. The columns of words to be spelled are printed in the usual Roman characters. The pronunciation sometimes expressed in italics, is indicated in parallel columns of words. We will give a few examples of these illustrations — *tshĭn pur, kŏng klāve, kŏng kōrse, kŭd dy, kŏn strō.* It may be that these words exhibit Walker's pronunciation, but the words, *conclave*, and *construe*, in their usual appearance will suggest to any child, who knows the sounds of all letters, a more agreeable pronunciation than that intimated by Mr Bartlett's italics. *Mòd'dl* for *model; mòd' dist* for *modest: mún dè* for *Monday*, seems to us a very vulgar pronunciation to be expressly inculcated. *Púd' ding, púl' pit*, pronounced like *púb' lish*, seems to us rather Irish than English. One more remark upon these helps to pronunciation and we have done. We should like to know how the pronunication of the word *fathom* is indicated by *fàt h' úm*, or *monthly* by *múnt' h' le*, or *mother* by *mòt' h' úr?* What has been noticed of Mr Bartlett's system of spelling applies to only a small part of the lessons he has given. What redeeming merit may be discovered in the neglected portion, we invite the intelligent teacher to inquire into himself.'

The bombast and frequent vulgarisms of the reading lessons is partially illustrated in the following remarks:

'We shall leave his Elocution, Rhetoric, Grammar, Political Economy, and Geography, so happily condensed and intermingled with reading and spelling lessons in three volumes, (we here omit all consideration of Part IV.) and bestow our attention upon Mr Bartlett's 'subjects' and 'language' in the lessons he has given in the arts of thinking and reading. A moral lesson addressed to a child shall be our first specimen of judicious and edifying counsel.

"O, thoughtless boy! beware! Let not the dazzle of gay things deceive you. Vice, in its most appalling shape, and gangrene state, lies covered with a gilded dress and fair inviting form."

'The excellence and beauty of the Bible is most happily commended in pages 37, 39, and 40 of part II. We wish we could insert the whole article, but we must content ourselves with a few passages of this eloquent rhapsody.

"The Bible contains the earliest antiquities; the strangest events; the most wonderful occurrences; heroic deeds; and unparalleled wars. It describes the celestial, terrestrial and infernal worlds; the origin of the angelic hosts; the human tribes and hellish legions."

'An article, page 106, headed General Washington. is the crown of the false sublime. That part of it which describes the revolutionary war, is more entirely discharged from common sense than any composition we ever saw that pretended to it. Here is the passage that strikes us as consummately ridiculous. (Page 106, P. III.)'

"A foreign foe, the arbiter of nations, with coffers full of gold — an army *millions strong*, and ships of war that whitened every sea, came hovering on our shores with fire and sword, to make us slaves and bow our necks to wear the yoke of royalty. The eyes of all the world were turned upon us, and our eyes were turned on Washington. He, his country's shield, with chosen comrades, few indeed, but brave, met the invader in the tented field and mingled in the unequal fight. The dubious strife, of near *octennial age* wore ever-varying shades: — the blood of heroes fertilized the soil — whole cities wrapped in flames bore witness to the tyrant, and the thrilling yell of savage hordes, commingling with the war-trump's hoarser note, proclaimed his allies in the work of death."'

But while the author does not hesitate to be vulgar, he will not condescend to be *simple*.

'Have we room to celebrate Mr Bartlett's felicity as an historian? Not adequately, but we will afford a single passage on account of its *perspicuity*, and its attractiveness to the young. The following passage alludes to the circumstances which led to the last American war with Great Britain:

"In consequence of this presumed pusillanimity, new and aggravated provocations and flagrant insults were almost daily offered to the national flag by the transatlantic belligerents."

'Soon after follow some statements concerning a settlement of differences, such as, "a certain Mr Jackson of *Copenhagen memory*, was sent out," &c. We admire this *Copenhagen memory*, because it must be so consummately puzzling to any boy or girl of the present day; and we equally admire a certain question which we noticed — "What was the state of the King's ear?" We did not look at the text to learn what this question implied.

The history throughout is marked by the entire *want* of that intelligence which apprehends the uses and just method of elementary teaching.'

The 'opinions' of the work would receive a useful addition from the following which were collected by this writer; and every friend of education will sympathise in the closing remarks.

'We have seen booksellers set off their commodities with certain brief commendations of newspaper editors, and professors of languages. We have ourselves *conversed* upon these works with three gentlemen thus concerned with the public press and with education. One of them remarked to the writer — "The grossness of this imposture deserves to be exposed to the public;" another said, "Castigation, with no unsparing hand is due to the presumption, false taste, and folly exhibited in books like these;" and the third observed, "I perceive that among the nonsense of his own creation, this compiler has intermingled some of our finest poetry, but in his hands it resembles *clipped* coin, and one recognizes these fragments of what is beautiful in this new and incongruous connection like stolen children of the rich among gypsies. They are mutilated and disfigured that they may resemble their associates." This alludes to some instances of passages detached from the whole to which they properly belong.

'We confess we look upon these books with some anxiety. Is the youthful mind of our country to be trained by heads "that cannot teach and will not learn?" Is susceptible childhood to be wasted upon a form of instruction which never can build up the inner man — to become the prey of speculators instead of the cherished, developed, furnished objects of well adapted, careful, philosophical teaching? Is all that the wise and benevolent project, for the formation of national character, by using the best means for the best ends, to be obstructed by a trumpery system that has ignorance for its author, and self-interest for its propagator and finisher?'

The committee of the legislature next discuss the general question of adopting a measure like that proposed in a very conclusive manner.

'Admitting the work in question to have none of the defects suggested, and that it possesses all the peculiar and superior merits its compiler and its friends claim for it, still the committee could not recommend the passage of the law asked for. If the work have the merit pretended, it will make its way into general use without the aid of any legislative act for that purpose; if it have not such merit, then most certainly would it be wrong to force it into general use by any such legislative act. But even supposing it to have the merit claimed for it — that it is decidedly superior to any other work of the kind — still the committee are of opinion that it would be neither wise nor just to adopt it to the exclusion of all others: For even although this may now be superior to any other work extant, yet, in this age of improvement, who would by law limit the point of perfection? Who would deny to us, upon this great interest of our state and country, the lights of time, and the benefits of experience; or who so hardy as to predict that mind, if left free and unproscribed upon this subject, may not soon improve even upon the work in question? If this be so, would it not be unwise to fasten upon the state, by a legislative act, and at an expense so enormous as that would involve, any system of instruction, however perfect it might seem, or however superior to all others, at the time, it might be acknowledged to be? Instead of promoting, this could not fail ultimately to sacrifice the great interest in question.

'But your committee are of opinion that the passage of the law asked for, would be as unjust as it would be impolitic. It would lead necessarily to the sacrifice of the interests of those numerous authors and publishers whose works would be thus proscribed, and rendered valueless. These interests are often the fruits of a life of industry and laborious study. They constitute the entire wealth and sole dependence of the numerous individuals immediately concerned therein. As such, they are entitled to the equal protection of government. It has been well observed by the superintendent of common schools, in his late able annual report to this house, that "the greatest experience, and much of the best talent of the country, are enlisted in this business, and the fruits of their labors are constantly giving them new claims to the approbation of the public." The interests of these numerous, respectable, and useful individuals, should be neither wantonly, unnecessarily, nor uselessly sacrificed. Sacrifices of individual interest, indeed, even to effect objects of great and acknowledged public good, should be made as rarely as possible, and even then with extreme caution; but never to promote individual benefit. The committee have been unable to perceive, either in the petition in this case, or in the work to which it relates, any good or sufficient reason for the sacrifices, both public and private, which the granting of the prayer of the petition would necessarily involve.'

They conclude with exposing one of the means employed to give circulation to this work.

'But it has been repeatedly stated, that "the plan of this work was the suggestion of the late governor Clinton;" and, "so far as it had progressed up to the time of his lamented death, received his favorite regard and patronage." There has been thence inferred an obligation on the state to complete and adopt what has been thus commenced. It has even been pretended that the faith of the state has been thereby pledged to that effect. The committee believe that there has been gross error upon this point. To disabuse the public in this respect, as well as to do justice to the memory of the late governor Clinton, whose official conduct is here called in question, it will be sufficient to present an extract from an original letter written by that distinguished individual, and which letter has been submitted to the committee. The letter bears date the 24th April, 1827, and is as follows:

'Having no authority to direct the compilation of a common school manual, I have never officially made any communication to Mr Bartlett of Utica, on that subject; but if I recollect right, I think that, on his signifying his intention to write such a work, I expressed my wish that he would execute it; and this I should probably have said to any other person who has exhibited ability in such cases as Mr B. has done, particularly in an introduction to astronomy. Mr B. showed me his manual last winter, but having only time to glance at it, I gave a recommendation in its favor qualified by this rapid and general view; and in so doing, I had no intention to disparage the merits or diminish the sale of any similar and contemporary publications of merit.'

'From this extract it will be seen, that so far from the plan of this work being suggested, or its execution directed by the late governor Clinton, he merely expressed a wish when that plan was submitted to him by Mr Bartlett, that it might be executed. Instead of supposing, however, that this work was to be adopted by the state, to the exclusion of all others, he expressly says, that in any recommendation of it which he had given,

upon an imperfect examination, "he had no intention to disparage the merits or diminish the sale of any contemporary publications of merit."

'In every view which the committee have been able to take of this subject; whether they consider the character of the work in question; the nature and importance of the principles involved in this application; or the extent and magnitude of the interests, both public and private, to be affected by its decision, the committee are unanimously of opinion that it would be as impolitic as it would be unjust to legislate in the manner desired in this case. They therefore submit for the consideration of the house, the following resolution:

'*Resolved*, That the prayer of the petitioners ought not to be granted.'

Mr Butler here adds:

'It will be perceived that the committee have expressed a very decided opinion *as to the execution of the work* prepared by Mr Bartlett — a point to which I carefully avoided making any allusion, because I had not given the books such an examination as would have justified me in speaking on that subject. The well known accuracy and the enlightened judgment of the writer of the report, may, however, be relied upon with entire safety; and if so, it would seem — independently of objections to the principle of the measure — that the books proposed were fatally defective.

'Here then we have another instance — (the injudicious recommendations of Mr Macauley's history have already been alluded to) — of the injurious consequences resulting from that amiable facility which so often induces our distinguished men to lend their names to applicants for public favor. If the decision of this interesting question had depended on the authority of *names*, the books of Mr Bartlett, with all their imperfections, would have been entailed on the common schools.'

We have felt it our duty to give full exposition of a work which we consider grossly defective. We know not into whose hands the *property* has now fallen; but could our pages gain access to them, we would earnestly entreat them not to hazard their capital, or their reputation, or the public good, by attempting to circulate a school-book of this character.

Art. VI. — Institutions for the Blind.

It is one of the proudest triumphs of human ingenuity, to have found new avenues to the minds of those unfortunate beings, who seemed cut off from social communication by the want of the ordinary means of the acquisition of knowledge. It is highly creditable to our country that so much has been done to discharge that part of our social bond by which the helpless are made claimants upon their happier fellows. The claims of the deaf have long since been allowed; their dumb eloquence has pleaded not in vain; and in this country they have as great advantages for the acquisition of knowledge as other children.

Nor have the claims of the blind been unheeded; but we have heretofore been obliged to answer their prayer for intellectual light, with a sigh that the pittance must be so scanty. The time has now come, however, when we are able to direct upon their minds a portion at least of that light which we impart to the rising generation.

Without attempting to prove that blindness is not an insurmountable obstacle to the acquisition of knowledge of any kind, which does not require the immediate aid of color, (a self evident truth to those who have examined the subject) we shall merely allude to the causes and effects of blindness; give some statistical details, and express our opinion upon the number and kinds of establishments necessary for the blind in the United States.

It seems to be one of the fundamental laws of the animal organization, that there shall be exceptions to the perfection of every organ; that among a million of births, there should be a certain proportion of deaf, of blind, of lame, and of deformed; a certain proportion with the lungs, the heart, or other of the great viscera, so imperfectly formed as to be unable to carry on their functions in perfection, or for a long time. We shall be struck when we consider how much more frequent the exceptions are in man than in other animals; and we shall be startled to find how much more numerous they are in the civilized than in the savage state. The individuals subject to these infirmities, if life is spared, impart a predisposition to them in their offspring. This is peculiarly the case with the blind; and blindness is not only very often hereditary, but shared in numerous instances, by several of the family. Cases have occurred of four, five or six children, born blind of the same parents, neither of whom were blind themselves, but whose parents, or ancestors in the second generation, had been so. The proportion of those born blind is very small, and very much smaller is the number of those who never perceive light. Indeed, it is only the absolute deficiency of the organ, which can easily cause total cēcity.

The proportion of those born blind, and of those who become so by disease or accident, varies in different meridians, and in different climates. The greatest is in the torrid zone, less in the temperate, and still less in the frigid zones. It is only in the middle of Europe that the proportion has been accurately ascertained. In Austria, they are as 1 to 845; in Prussia, as 1 to 900; in Denmark, 1 to 1000; in France, 1 to 1050; in England, 1 to 1100; in Switzerland, 1 to 747. In Egypt it is supposed they are as 1 to 300! So that estimating the population of the world at eight hundred millions, there must be, at least, more than four hundred thousand of human beings without sight.

In the United States, the proportion of blind to the whole pop-

ulation is less than in the same latitudes in Europe, if we may depend upon the census. It has been proved, however, in several cases in New England, that the returns of the blind were very imperfect; and it is highly probable that there are more than 7000 blind of all ages, in this country.* Let us take, however, the official returns, which gave 5431 blind at the last census: here we find a startling number of our fellow beings, 'from the cheerful way of men cut off,' and condemned to a short and unhappy life of darkness, idleness and dependence; and it becomes every christian, every philanthropist, to ask seriously, how can we provide for them? It will be found that the public methods hitherto pursued for the relief of the blind, have been such as positively *to increase the sum of their suffering* — that the hand of charity has wounded, when it would have soothed them. Ask of a man who was born blind, what is the chief source of his unhappiness, and he will answer you, 'Not the want of sight, but the want of occupation.' He is condemned to a life of idleness; his friends put the very food into his mouth; his physical powers are undeveloped by action; his mind lies in the barrenness of nature; his manly feelings are crushed under the load of obligation and continual dependence. The friends of his youth gradually leave him; no hope of future independence gives healthy food to the mind, and bowed down with sorrow, he awaits the coming on of premature old age, when in a solitary almshouse he shall finish his sad career on earth, and his spirit, breaking from the dark tomb of this world, shall emerge into the light and glory of the next.

Such is too often the lot of the blind, and such it becomes from the mistaken notions of the world about the effects of blindness; whereas if the blind man can receive an education, suited to his wants, he becomes a healthy, active, intelligent being; he has an employment by which he can support himself; his mind, ever occupied, does not prey upon his frame; he becomes, in short, a happy and useful member of society.

If the limits of this article would allow it, we might point out many of the errors of common opinion about blindness, and give

* In an interesting and able article on this subject in the North American Review for July, 1833, we find the following remarks on the subject of the number of the blind. We would merely premise that the actual number of the blind in each State, as found in the three first columns, is taken from the official census of 1830.

'With regard to the number of the blind, we have no means of knowing it very accurately in this country, for no correct census has been taken; but from researches made by the Trustees of the New England Institution for the Education of the Blind, it is quite evident that the returns made by the general estimates are far too low. The only document we have met with is one lately published in Philadelphia, apparently taken from the general census, in which the number of the blind in every State is given, and which makes the sum total a little over five thousand.

'It is impossible, however, to form any estimate of the proportional number of

some useful hints to the friends of the blind, who in their mistaken kindness, are every day, and every hour, increasing the infirmity of the sufferer. They will not let him do anything for himself; they crush his faculties by keeping him in idleness; they continually remind him of his inferiority and his infirmity, by condolences and expressions of pity, as well as by unnecessary and officious interferences: in short, they 'kill him with kindness.'

Now such conduct is unwise — nay, it is cruel. The only philosophical way of teaching the blind is to throw them upon their own resources; not to abandon them, but to guide them to a path where they can go alone. Treat them as beings born with four senses,

the blind in sections of the country so small, as those in regard to which the writer of this paper attempts to do it; nor do we agree with him in the causes which he assigns for the apparent variations. The fact is, that we cannot make any accurate calculation of the number of the blind which will be found even in a population of one million; for it varies from temporary causes, and in different generations; but we may calculate with some degree of certainty, how many blind persons will be found in a population of ten millions, the latitude and the climate being given.'

The following is the table referred to, showing the number of Blind persons in the United States; also the relative proportion to the population, &c.

STATES.	BLIND.			Propotion to whole population....1 to	Proportion of blind whites to whole white population....1 to	Proportion of colored blind to whole colored population....1 to	Proportion of colored to the whole population.
	White.	Colored.	Total.				
Maine,	159	1	160	2497	2505	1177	1 in 339
New Hampshire,	105	0	105	2565	2559	——	1 443
Massachusetts,	218	5	223	2737	2768	1409	1 86
Rhode Island,	56	8	64	1518	1672	447	1 27
Connecticut,	188	7	195	1526	1540	1152	1 30
Vermont,	51	0	51	5503	5485	——	1 317
New York,	642	82	724	2650	2918	547	1 43
New Jersey,	205	22	227	1413	1464	734	1 16
Pennsylvania,	475	28	503	2680	2758	1369	1 35
Delaware.	18	11	29	2646	3205	1741	1 4
Maryland,	147	124	271	1649	1980	1257	1 3
Virginia,	355	438	793	1527	1956	1180	1 2
North Carolina,	223	161	384	1922	2120	1647	1 3
South Carolina,	102	136	238	2442	2528	2377	1 2
Georgia,	150	123	273	1893	1979	1789	1 2
Alabama,	68	48	116	2668	2800	2482	1 2
Mississippi,	25	31	56	2439	2817	2135	1 2
Louisiana,	36	77	113	1909	2485	1640	1 2
Tennessee,	176	37	213	3201	3044	3950	1 4
Kentucky,	169	83	252	2729	3064	2050	1 3
Ohio,	232	6	238	3940	3993	1596	1 98
Indiana,	85	2	87	3942	3887	1816	1 94
Illinois,	35	4	39	4037	4443	596	1 66
Missouri,	27	10	37	3796	4251	2566	1 5
Michigan,	5	0	5	6327	6269	——	1 108
Arkansas,	8	2	10	3038	3209	2358	1 6
Florida,	3	16	19	1828	6128	1020	1 2
District of Co'bia.	11	8	19	2096	2506	1534	1 3
	3974	1470	5444	2363	2650	1584	

who have to earn their living among those who have five; and with a little care and attention in youth, they will do it. But they want not *charity*, in its common sense; it is not charity indeed to throw a dollar into the hat of a blind beggar, if other means can keep him from becoming one; it is not charity to build for him almshouses and places of refuge, if means exist by which he can be kept from them. The utility of institutions for the *education* of the blind, which shall prepare them to take care of themselves, has been too clearly shown both in Europe and in this country to need any demonstration here; and we shall merely make an estimate of the number requisite for the wants of our blind.

Of the 5,500 blind in the United States it will be found that nine tenths are born of indigent parents. Perhaps, indeed, we put the proportion too low; for the poor are more liable to those accidents which cause blindness; they do not have that immediate medical assistance which in diseases of the eyes of infants can alone be of any avail; and then, when blindness has once become hereditary in any family, it will soon become poor. There are 5,000 blind, then, who are unable to provide themselves with an education: the next question is, how many of these are of an age to be benefited by education. We have remarked that very few are born absolutely blind; a very large proportion, however, become so in infancy; — fewer during childhood and youth, except from accidents; and a few lose their sight during manhood. Old age dims the vision often, but seldom destroys it entirely. Among 777 blind in New England, 52 are over the age of 50 years: and we may calculate from this that certainly one fourth of the blind will be under 30 years of age, until when, they may be advantageously instructed in various subjects and taught handicraft works. To be within bounds, however, let us suppose that only 1000 out of the 5,500 blind in the United States, are of an age for instruction, and let us see what provision should be made for them; for as yet there are not 60 under instruction in Institutions designed for them, and 30 of these are in the Institution in Boston.

An Institution well regulated may accommodate 150 inmates — it is to be hoped the New England Institution will do this, and that no other will be needed for this section of the country. The New York Institution is now organized, and will doubtless suffice for that region; and another is going into operation in Philadelphia. In order to provide for the blind in the South and West, there should be a fourth in Richmond, a fifth in the extreme Southern States, a sixth in the South Western, and a seventh in the Western States. Then, and not till then, will the inhabitants of this country have discharged their duty to the blind.

For a full view of this subject, we refer to the July No. of the North American Review, for 1833.

Art. VII — Primary Schools of Boston.

Report of the Primary School Committee on Improvements. October, 1833. Boston: J. H. Eastburn, City Printer.

The Primary Schools of Boston contain about 4000 children, 'embracing,' in the language of the Committee, 'a large proportion of all those in the city, between the ages of *four* and *seven*; by which the whole population becomes interested in the subject.' They are designed to teach spelling, reading, and the elements of arithmetic, in order to prepare the children for the 'English Grammar Schools,' in which a complete knowledge is given of the ordinary branches of common school instruction. In the Primary Schools, therefore, is laid the foundation of all the education given to the mass of our citizens; and on the health and knowledge and habits here acquired, depends in a great measure, the future happiness or misery, the useful or injurious influence, of those who constitute the families, and elect the government, and control the laws of our city.

These schools are under the direction of a general 'Committee on Primary Schools,' divided into District Committees, assigned to the several districts, one member of which takes charge of each school. Repeated and urgent demands for improvement in these schools have been made by members of the Committee and others; but have often been resisted. In June last, a sub-committee was appointed 'On Improvements, whether any and what, as regards physical education, means of instruction, and books for study in the Primary Schools.' The sub-committee 'having had the several subjects under consideration,' presented a report on the 1st October, which was accepted, and returned to them to be prepared for publication. The pamphlet before us is the result. From the mature deliberations of a select school committee, in a city peculiarly celebrated for its intellectual character and its improvements in education, our readers will naturally expect much; and the frequent inquiries addressed to us for some account of 'the Boston schools,' satisfy us that our distant friends will be much interested to learn their conclusions.

In examining the report, we are highly gratified to find the Committee decided, in urging the necessity of providing suitable rooms for the accommodation of these schools, *at the public expense*. With some persons, we are aware, that *economy* would have more influence than any argument which could be urged on the score of the health, or improvement, or safety of the children of our citizens. It is encouraging to find that there is no fear of irritating the 'pocket nerve' of the people; and that some appropriations are already made for this purpose on the grounds stated by the Committee, that 'the *interest* on the money which it will cost to provide suitable buildings for the purpose, will not exceed what is now paid in rent.' We cannot but hope, therefore, that the proper authorities will be justified in listening to the urgent recommendation of the sub committee, when they

are compelled to state, that 'a very large number of the rooms now in use are *badly situated*, and *too small* either for the *health*, or *comfort*, or *proper education*, of the rising generation.' What a statement this, to be presented to the world, concerning the schools of the children of Boston! But we rejoice that it is made; and we are gratified in being able, from inquiries, begun before we were aware of their views, to confirm, in detail, the account of the sub-committee, and to press upon the public the importance of the measure they propose. We are the more gratified, because we are well assured of the great and persevering efforts made by the district committees, to obtain suitable rooms in private buildings, and of the pleasure they would feel, in being relieved from this improper and heavy tax upon their gratuitous office.

The recesses or periods of relaxation, during school hours, recommended by the Committee, are not less important to the well being, and even the improvement of the children, and we earnestly hope they will be required, and the exercises proposed be practised, in every school.

Our attention was called to this subject by the remark of a gentleman, familiar with our prisons, that *the children of the city of Boston* were, in many cases, confined for the day, in rooms so unsuitable and unhealthy, that they would not be assigned to *the convicts of our penitentiaries.*' A subsequent conversation with Dr J. D. Fisher, whose experience in the School Committee had excited a strong interest on this subject, led to a joint resolution, that we would ascertain facts precisely, and make them known. The result of our inquiries will be found in the following letter, addressed to Moses Grant, Esq, the Chairman of the Primary School Committee.

To Moses Grant, Esq.

Dear Sir; — The imperfect provisions made for school rooms for our primary schools, and the persevering but fruitless efforts of the district committees to secure better accommodations, has long been a source of deep regret to one of us, for some time, on the Committee. We believed that we could not render a more acceptable service to the committees, or to the children of our city, than by ascertaining by inspection and measurement, the size and state of primary school rooms, and thus presenting facts, which have been stated so generally as to gain, apparently, but partial credence. We have spent some days in ascertaining the condition, on these points, of *every primary school*, with the exception of those in South Boston, and avail ourselves of your permission, to communicate to you the results.

We ought to say, that we commenced our examination with the conviction, founded on the experience of physicians and boards of health, and observing teachers, that impure air, and that which is exhausted by too long breathing, impairs at every breath the purity of the blood, and thus, with every pulsation of the heart, sends an unhealthy circulation to every limb and organ of the body, which tends to enfeeble and disorder, instead of invigorating, the whole

system. We are satisfied on the same evidence, that confinement to one position, for a long time, especially, on a seat without support, in the early period of childhood, not only enfeebles the limbs and checks the growth, but also interrupts the operations, and affects the vigor of almost every organ, and often lays the foundation for permanent debility and disease.

We know of no mode of guarding against these evils in our schools but by providing for them large rooms, with proper means for ventilation at all seasons; by allowing them a recess of not less than half an hour in three, for relaxation of body as well as mind; and furnishing a suitable yard, or play-ground, of sufficient size to permit the free movement of the children in the open air during this period. We have regretted to find, as will appear from details annexed, that in most of our schools, *no one of these points is fully secured; and in many, all are neglected.*

We would premise, that our own views of school rooms, correspond with those expressed by the Prussian government, as found in the Edinburgh Review for July, 1833, and in a document on this subject, published under the authority of the 'American Institute of Instruction,' in 1832,* from a careful examination of the best authors on this subject. In the latter, it is stated, that 'the *smallest dimensions* of a room for thirty pupils, should be 22 feet by 20; of one for fifty pupils, 30 by 25; and of one for seventy pupils, 35 by 80, — a liberal allowance would require *one third more.* This first plan gives to each pupil, 15 square feet, in a room 10 feet high; and by allowing less than this to each child, '*we hazard his health and constitution.*' We would merely add, that in two Infant Schools, sustained by private benevolence, we found a space 24 feet by 52, assigned to seventyfive or one hundred pupils, from eighteen months to six years old; and a room 27.5 by 19, with an adjoining room of 17 by 12, to fifty or sixty pupils, making a space of 12 square feet for each child. In view of these statements, we beg your attention to the inclosed table.

[We can only insert an extract from this table, which will show the condition of one district selected at random — Editor.]

School Rooms of District II.

	Room.				
No.	Long.	Broad.	Sq. feet.	Pupils.	Sq. feet to each.
1	29.1	22.6	654	69	9.5
2	18.	17.5	313	65	4.10
3	31.	18.2	563	70	8.
4	16.6	15.6	256	55	4.8
5	26.11	17.11	481	64	7.5
6	42.6	24.4	1034	67	15.7
7	26.	19.1	496	55	9.
8	26.	19.1	496	49	10.1

No one of these schools, except No. 6, which is kept in the vestry of a church, has a place for exercise for the children. No one has

* By Hilliard, Gray & Co.

any regular ventilation, except by the small air door of a close stove. No. 7 and 8 are in the third story of a warehouse; No. 3 and 5 in the second story, with noisy mechanics' shops above and below them. No. 1, in District III, has but $8\frac{9}{12}$ square feet to each pupil; and No. 6, District V, but $2\frac{9}{12}$ square feet to each!

Opposite the number of each school, the columns present its dimensions, number of pupils, space for ventilation, apparent state of the air, number of recesses, and provision for play ground.

Where the ventilation is designated by a cypher, the only place of escape for air was by the small air door of a close stove. In order to describe the state of the air, as it appeared to us, we employed figures; as 1 to designate a pure air, and 4 to indicate that which rendered breathing oppressive, and was, at the same time, nauseating; but we omit these numbers, as being mere estimates. We have indicated by figures the number of recesses. We have found in most cases no place in the open air, connected with the school, which would permit even a dozen children to play in peace or safety. In these cases, we have marked o in the column for the play ground. Where this is not inserted, we have rarely found any which was large enough to allow the free movements of half the school, the least number which could be dismissed at once for this purpose, without too frequent disturbance of the studies of others. In those cases where the height of the rooms is not mentioned, it was usually from 8 to 9 feet. Our examination was made with all the care which a brief visit would allow; and while we cannot hope to have escaped error entirely, we can vouch for the general correctness of the results.

Assuming the lowest standard in the document of the Institute, it will be seen by the table, that the schools which have most influence in forming the constitution of the children of this city, in most instances, do not allow *one half the smallest space*, which is considered safe! And it appears also, from the report of the sub-committee, that the city are thus prodigal of the health and life of its children, without any economy in regard to the support of these schools.

The exceptions to this statement with reference to size, are, in many instances, to be found in rooms half sunk in the ground, — sometimes below the level of a pond, or the tide near them — and thus extremely liable to dampness, and to the stagnation of air. In one of these, the teacher informed us, colds were frequently produced by its dampness, even in visitors; and that it was sometimes so dark as to render it impossible to read, at half past two o'clock. There are, however, some rooms, particularly those vestries of churches which are above ground, in which we found the air perfectly pure. But in these cases, the peculiar arrangement of benches renders them unsuitable for school rooms, and the height of the seats is of course painful to the children. On the other hand, there were not a few rooms in which we found the air oppressive and nauseating to a degree which rendered it scarcely tolerable, during the few minutes necessary to ascertain the facts we state.

In a number of cases, the teachers complained of its effects upon them; and in more than one, they were but too clearly exhibited in the countenances of teacher and pupils. It will also appear from the table, that in only a few cases is any care taken to provide for that ventilation which would obviate a part of the evil. In one school (No. 9 Sudbury-street) the effects of an air stove, such as is recommended in a note in the report we have alluded to, are sufficient to show that this is perfectly practicable. In most cases, where the air was in a tolerable state of purity, it was preserved only by opening the windows, often with great exposure to the teacher and the pupils.

In addition to the impurity produced by the mere confinement of the air, we found in some instances offensive odors, which must have been highly deleterious. In one school, the teacher informed us that she had been made sick during the past summer, by such effluvia; that frequently, the air nauseated the children, even to vomiting; and that the board of health had attempted in vain to investigate the cause. Still, the school has been continued in the same room, at a rent sufficient to pay the interest on the cost of a building, well situated and of proper size.

In one of the largest rooms we visited, we found no light, except from two windows, at the end of a room forty feet in length. It was filled with smoke, which we were informed was incessant. The floor was visibly damp, from the effects of the tide which flowed under it. The teacher assured us that in spite of the efforts of the Committee, it was constantly wet during a heavy rain; and that 12 and 14 of her pupils were sick at a time!

As will be seen from the table, we seldom found any space sufficient for the free movements of the children, during the moments of recess. We often found the entrance to the room through the filthy back-yard of a house, or in the neighborhood of a stable, or a blacksmith's shop, or a carriage-manufactory house, where the children could scarcely pass in safety. We met with few, in which there was a free circulation of air around the school room.

One room was situated immediately under a flat, composition roof, in a confined situation, and was only seven feet high. The teacher observed, that in summer, the heat was excessive and unmitigated.

Some of the rooms which were good in other respects, were in a situation so public or so noisy, that the window could not be opened in the summer. In more than one school, the exercises are often interrupted by the noise; and in one, it became necessary to abandon instruction in music, on this account. One was surrounded by mechanic shops in the story above and below it, which produced great disturbance. Several rooms are in the second and third stories, with steep and narrow stair cases, entirely unsafe for children.

We also found much reason to believe, that the situation of the rooms often exposes the children to moral corruption. In one case, we are pained to state, that we were assured the houses in the narrow passage to the school, were the resorts of licentiousness!

As the natural result of the situation of the rooms, and the want of a spacious yard or play ground, it is impossible to relieve the children from the effects of confinement and bad air, by suitable recesses. We found that two thirds of the schools allow no recess; and only permit the children a few moments of relaxation in the school room. Where it is allowed, we were sorry to find that, except in a single instance, five to ten minutes was the utmost time granted, in a session of three hours. We are gratified, that the committee have urged the necessity of recesses, and we hope that this important improvement will be adopted. We believe, however, that thirty minutes' recess in each half day, would contribute to the progress, as well as to the health of the children; and we know that the best medical authorities deem this indispensable to their safety. The fact that the evils of a different course are not *immediately* apparent, will not prove that it does not have its share, in the diseases which often confine the children at home, or in the debility and infirmities, with which they too frequently grow up. We cannot but observe here, that in proportion as their customary residence is confined and unhealthy, the need of free air and exercise during their school hours is more urgent, and the obligations of duty and benevolence to provide them are more imperious, in order to save them, if possible, from the worst effects of poverty, and from the aggravation of its evils, by feebleness or ill health.

We have presented this simple statement of facts, in the hope that they might be used to promote the important measures in reference to school rooms and recesses, proposed by the Committee on Improvements; and we earnestly hope that public opinion will not only authorize, but demand their execution.

We are, Sir,
respectfully yours,

J. D. Fisher.
Wm. C. Woodbridge.

Such is the strong evidence we have found, of the importance of the measures recommended by the Committee on Improvements; and we rejoice that they have appreciated so highly the subject of Physical education. We regret that we cannot find the same disposition to improvement on other points.

The '*means of instruction*' are next taken up by the Committee. We would simply observe here, that cards for spelling, a board 12 or 18 inches square, on which are painted or drawn all the points and marks in use, from 'comma' to 'double dagger,' the Boston Spelling book and Reading book, the Testament and primary arithmetic, are the only means of instruction or illustration to be found in the Primary Schools. In a few instances, a black board, a numerator (or abacus with balls to assist in teaching to count) and in one or two instances, a few other objects for visible illustration, are to be seen. But these, we found, were positively forbidden by the General Committee.

The only visible objects besides these, which are allowed in these

nurseries of the young mind, are the benches, and the desk and rod of the instructor. In view of such ample provisions, the Committee on improvements propose but *two* additional 'means of instruction.' The first we shall describe in their own words.

'They suggest, however, that a great improvement may be made on the "cards," which are now used by the fourth class. The improvement to which they refer, as suggested by one of the Committee, may be stated in a few words. The principle is, that instead of one card, containing as now all the letters of the Alphabet, on a horizontal line, with other words and objects to divide and distract the attention of the pupil, that there shall be a series of cards, small in size, containing but three letters on the one side, perpendicularly placed, and these letters so chosen that when conjoined, they shall have a meaning perfectly intelligible to the youngest child. On the other side, the same word to be followed in various combinations, with a pictorial representation of the object which the word conveys. For instance, Card No. 1, may have on one side, the letters C, O, and W, in capitals; — when conjoined, making the word cow. On the other side, various combinations of this word, as co, wo, oc, ow, &c, &c, in small letters, with a picture of the animal. The number of cards required for all the letters, in this way, will probably not exceed a dozen. This plan, as your Committee believe, will combine the advantages of our present cards and those of the dissected letters, with the additional recommendations of greater facility of use and an increased power of exciting an interest in the first steps of learning. They recommend, therefore, that a Committee be raised, at this meeting, to prepare and publish such a series of cards for the use of the schools.'

'The other means of instruction which they recommend for the adoption of the Board, are small slates for the use of the fourth (lowest) class, on which they may imitate some marks, or letters, or object (?) placed upon them by the instructor; or copy some letter or letters from a card.' 'This class' they observe — a class of children from 4 to 5 years of age, in each Primary school, confined six hours daily to a bench — '*are left for the most part without employment*,' and this, too, '*from the nature of the case!*' And are these the schools which do not fear 'investigation by friends or foes?' We cannot but add, however, that they must find ample employment in supporting their aching frames, and restraining their restless limbs and active minds, during hours of confinement to a bench, usually without support, to which an adult would scarcely submit. We rejoice, sincerely, that the Committee have furnished some relief to the 'listlessness' and 'weariness' which they state as the result. We commend their *prudence* in confining the use of this dangerous instrument to one class of the school. We know that there are strong prejudices against 'apparatus,' and we regret that the manner in which it has been made, and presented, and ABUSED, have given some ground; but we are surprised that a Committee on so important a subject, should utterly forget the value of objects for visible illustration, or should fail to discriminate between their use and their abuse.

In regard to '*books for study*,' the Committee on Improvements refer to the report of another committee for the character of the books now in use, and confine themselves to the question of new studies. As the design of these schools is merely to prepare children for the English Grammar schools, in which the course of common school instruction is completed, they only advise, that in addition to the pres-

ent studies, that arithmetic be adopted 'as a study of the whole school.' In the words of the committee,

'That the course of instruction be so modified, as to require that Numeration or the counting from one to a hundred, be taught to the fourth (lowest) class. The combination of these numbers, so as to find for instance, the page of any book, be taught to the second division of the third class. Arithmetical Tables to the first division of the third commenced, — completed in the second class and the study and practice of the rules and examples begun in the same; — and the study of the Book of Primary Lessons — be perfected by the pupils in the first class before they receive a ticket of admission to the Grammar Schools.'

Such are the only advances which the 'Committee on Improvements,' in the Athens of our country, propose to the General Committee, and through them to all who adopt the Primary Schools of Boston as models! Can it be, as it is said, that public opinion will allow no more?

We should be at a loss to account for such a report, did not the introductory part furnish much evidence that its writers were not acquainted with what has been done for the improvement of schools. We find, indeed, the name of one teacher (and only one) on the list of the sub-committee, but one who was dangerously ill at the period of its preparation, and since deceased. One passage, in connection with another on a following page, is so difficult of interpretation, that we submit them both in juxtaposition, for the examination of our readers. The words in italics, are marked by us:

'*All the most valuable principles* which are now contended for by the writers in the old country, are those which have been discussed and settled in New England, by talents and learning equally distinguished, and for the most part *have been in successful operation with us for more than a century*. In other words, they are, in this respect, borrowing from us.' — [*Report*, *p.* 4.

'Your Committee do not intend by these remarks to say, that *no valuable suggestions and improvements* have been *received* from abroad on this subject, and *adopted* in our schools. On the contrary, they know, that the discussion of this great topic, in our own and other countries, has elicited from time to time *some most important principles* and truths in relation to it, especially with regard to manuals and apparatus in the higher departments.' — [*Report*, *p.* 7.

Without attempting the difficult task of reconciling these statements, we suppose we must assume, from the general tenor of the report, that the Committee on 'Improvements' really suppose any improvements of an intellectual kind to be unnecessary and useless in the schools of Boston. Let us see what evidence there is that they were prepared to judge on this subject.

We first beg of our readers to review the statement we have quoted, and to look over the account of Primary Education in Prussia, in a previous article, and to recollect the schools of their childhood, or of Boston, and then resist, if they can, a smile. We will not trouble them with a conclusion.

But next the Committee inform us, that the system of Infant Schools was adopted in this country, in consequence of a mistake of

their benevolent patrons, in 'supposing that it must be a new thing because it had a new name'! They say, that, we had Primary Schools embracing the same class of children, as nearly as possible, both as to character and age; and that such schools had existed in New England from time immemorial'! We pass by the high compliment paid to the discernment of the numerous friends of Infant Schools, and will merely try again the method of juxtaposition, in order to compare the two classes of schools:

PRIMARY SCHOOLS.	INFANT SCHOOLS.
Age of children, 4 to 7 years.	*Age*, 1½ to 5 or 7 years.
Great Objects. — To communicate a knowledge of the elements of written language and arithmetic.	*Great Objects.* — To train the body to health and vigor — to produce activity of mind and cheerfulness — to cultivate moral feeling — habits of observing, describing, and reflection — knowledge of nature — spelling and reading, arithmetic, and in many, writing.
Occupations. — Studying on benches, or reciting in classes (standing still) the alphabet, spelling and reading books, and arithmetic, to the exclusion of all other occupations.	*Occupations.* — Studying and reciting spelling, reading, &c, for short periods, counting, singing, hearing narratives and descriptions, conversation, marching, exercises of body.
Treatment. — Confined to benches three hours each half day occasionally standing to recite; one recess of five to ten minutes.	*Treatment.* — Seldom out more than half an hour at a time; frequent motion; half an hour to an hour of recess.
Means of Instruction. — Cards, books and slates, only; visible objects forbidden.	*Means of Instruction.* — Cards, books, slates, pictures, visible objects, figures, solids, objects of natural history, and other apparatus such as children can comprehend.

We leave our readers to their own reflections, in comparing the statements of the Committee with these familiar facts.

The remainder of the report furnishes ample materials to sustain the conclusion which they will naturally draw; but we gladly desist from this unpleasant task until farther evidence is demanded.

We would again express our pleasure that the Committee have been so decided in urging improvements in regard to Physical education, and that the City Government have been so prompt in commencing them. We believe that nothing but a full statement of facts is necessary to secure them the support of public opinion; and we hope, that when the Committee shall find opportunity to examine the subject of Intellectual education, with equal care, they will recommend improvements on this subject, with equal decision. We believe the intelligent instructresses now generally employed, will second such efforts.

We hope that the example of our own schools will warn others interested in this subject not to rely too much on mere reputation; and lead them to investigate, frequently and thoroughly, the provisions for the health and instruction of the rising generation; and to act with equal promptitude in remedying the evils when they are admitted.

For the information of distant readers, we ought to add, that we have no where seen more liberal provision for school buildings, than in those appropriated to the secondary or grammar schools.

Art. VIII. — Western Literary Institute.

Proceedings of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers.

We congratulate our brethren of the West that they are 'up and doing' on the great subject of popular education. A meeting of members of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, and other friends of education, convened in Cincinnati on the 9th of September last, and held an interesting session of five days. The following is a brief sketch of their proceedings, as published by the Secretary in the Literary Cabinet and Western Olive Branch.

The meeting was opened with prayer and an address from the Rev. Dr Beecher of Cincinnati, 'On the importance of making the business of teaching a profession.' Pres. Thomas Mathews was appointed chairman of the meeting. After the Secretary had read the proceedings of the Convention of Oct. 1832, letters were read from twenty gentlemen, teachers and others, throughout the Western States and Territories, regretting their absence, but heartily approving the objects of the College.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted and referred to a committee:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to report on the expediency of preparing a *Manual of Instruction for the Mississippi Valley;* which shall contain the best plans of erecting school houses and organizing schools, the modes of government, and the most approved and practicable methods of teaching the different branches of knowledge ;— the work to be afforded at a moderate price.

On a subsequent day of the session, the committee reported in favor of the object and appointed four gentlemen to prepare the work before the next annual meeting.

The following subjects were proposed for discussion, viz:

The importance of oral instruction, especially as an introduction to the use of books.

Is it desirable that *Physical Education* form a part of Female instruction?

Ought the love of distinction to be appealed to, as a motive in Education?

To what extent is it desirable to make the science of the mind a part of a course of study?

Ought the memory of children ever to be exercised without a corresponding exercise of the understanding?

Ought the Hebrew language to constitute a regular part of the system of collegiate education?

What shall be the *order of studies*, to be prosecuted in our primary schools?

Ought corporal punishment ever to be inflicted in Female Schools?

On the morning of the second day of the session, a committee was appointed to nominate officers and another to prepare an address. It was also,

Resolved, That a part of this afternoon be set aside for the purpose of hearing the remarks of individuals connected with the state of Education in their vicinity, and also the manner of teaching, as practised in their respective schools.

An address 'On Physical Education' was given by Dr Daniel Drake which occupied about two hours; and at the close of the lecture,

On motion, *Resolved*, That the Board of Directors be instructed to publish in such manner as may be thought best, *an address* to the friends of Education in the West; setting forth the importance of popular Education, requesting their hearty co-operation in their efforts to bring the subject before the public mind, and making suggestions as to the manner they may be accomplished.

In the evening an address was given by Timothy Walker, Esq., 'On the object of Education in the United States;' and at the close of the Lecture a discussion was held on the subject of *common schools*.

During the third day of the session, committees were appointed on the following subjects, to report at or before the next annual meeting of the college.

Ought the ancient languages to constitute a part of education?

Ought the science of *numbers*, or that of *language*, to occupy the more attention in the early stages of education?

To what extent may *manual labor* be beneficially employed, as a means of *reducing* the expenses of a Collegiate education?

Ought the requisition to engage in manual labor to be extended, in our colleges, to all the students, or should the engaging in such labor be optional?

Are there any defects in the Common Schools? If any, what are they? and how may they be remedied?

Should sacred history be considered a proper part of common school education? If so, what is the best method of introducing it?

What shall be the *order of studies* to be prosecuted in our primary female schools?

To what extent may *music* be introduced, as a branch of common school education? and what may be done by this college to promote its introduction?

Has emulation, as a motive in education, a favorable or unfavorable tendency? and in what way ought it to be adopted, as a *means*?

Three lectures were also delivered this day, 'On the study of Character,' by Mr Alexander Kinmont; 'On the discipline of the Intellectual powers,' by Prof. Stowe of the Lane Seminary; and 'On Intellectual Education, particularly in its early stages,' by Pres. B. O. Peers of Lexington.

On the morning of the fourth day of the session, the committee appointed in Oct. 1832, to whom was referred the consideration of the 'Class Book for all grades of schools best adapted to promote the interests of Education,' submitted a report, in which they say that they consider the multiplication of school books an unavoidable evil in the present state of the profession of teachers, and think it inexpedient to recommend any set of books; but to remedy this evil by raising the standard of intellectual qualifications among teachers themselves.

The remainder of the day was spent in hearing lectures from Mr Claudius Bradford, 'On the kind of education adapted to the Western States;' from Mr Nathaniel Holley, 'On the importance and absolute necessity of Universal education;' and in the appointment of officers for the ensuing year.

The last day of the session was spent in discussion on the subject of Common Schools. Addresses were made by Dr Beecher of Cincinnati, Pres. Peers of Lexington, Pres. Beecher of Jacksonville, Judge Hall, T. Walker, Wm. Green, and S. J. Atlee, Esqs, of Cincinnati.

At the suggestion of Judge Hall a central committee was appointed 'to devise the plan of a Society for the Improvement of Education and the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, which shall include citizens of all classes in the several Western States, and be calculated to exert an influence on the whole mass of the people.' It was also resolved that the Committee should report to a general convention of the citizens of the Western States and Territories, to be held in Cincinnati, on the second Monday of April next.

It was also resolved to raise a contribution in money, for the support of an agent for the state of Ohio, and on circulating subscription lists among those present $262 were immediately subscribed for the purpose.

It is cheering to see *acts* thus follow *resolutions*; and the results of this meeting inspire us with much hope concerning that which was held in Lexington, Nov. 6, but of which we have yet no accounts. The address to the friends of education at the west, well deserves a place in the Annals of Education, and would receive it if our pages were not pre-occupied. We hope to insert a part of it hereafter.

INTELLIGENCE.

The State of Education.

Our present number, as the last of the volume, and *possibly* of the work, is filled with an unusual amount of general articles, which could not be passed by. It furnishes sad evidence of the truth of the accounts we have given concerning the state of our country in reference to Education. From North Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, and the west, we find but one voice, — *multitudes have no instruction; — teachers are unqualified;* — and *schools are wretched*, to a lamentable degree, where they are found. Still it is cheering to see so many 'signs of life,' — to find so many earnestly engaged in this subject, and so many efforts to found new, and improve old, institutions. An admirable article in the last Christian Examiner, presents the importance of this subject in its true light. It rebukes with proper severity, the wretched, the mistaken economy practised on this subject: 'Economy, which in order to leave a fortune to a child, starves his intellect and impoverishes his heart.' '*Money*,' adds the writer, 'should not be weighed against *the soul of a child*, — it should be poured out like water, for the child's intellectual and moral life.'

Our recent numbers, as well as recent newspaper articles, will also show, that there are *parties in education* as well as politics. We have *radicals* who would pull down everything; *conservatives* who allow no change; and *reformers* who try to avoid the errors of both; — and we, probably, should be assigned to each of these parties, by different individuals. There is, also, an anti-religious party; and a non-religious party, who, unwittingly, favor the first by leaving out all religion in education; — and a religious party, who believe, as we have declared ourselves to believe, from our first address to this time, that while theology cannot be taught in a *common* school, *religion* must be the foundation and the topstone of *education*; that the Bible should be studied more diligently than any other volume, and that the *spirit of religion* should pervade even the common school. We have minor sects, of apparatus and anti-apparatus — translation and dictionary — whipping and anti-whipping — emulation and anti-emulation, teachers: and it is an encouraging thing that these points are discussed, on both sides, with more interest than ever. It shows that the object begins to enlist more feeling, and we shall cheerfully aid in rousing it by receiving proper articles from any party, except the anti-religious. Railing and personality we shall ever exclude; but spirited controversy would perhaps excite some of our non-reading subscribers, — one of the *worst* '*parties*' we know. We are ready to have our own opinions as freely discussed as those of others; and should prefer the exhibition of interest expressed in an *attack*, where we are considered wrong, to the apathy of dead silence.

Among the signs of the times, we have been not a little gratified with an able and spirited address sent us, on a large newspaper sheet, proposing the appropriation of the public lands to education. We rejoice that there is benevolence and interest enough to make such an effort for the cause, and hope it will find some other mode of action, if this fails. We cordially wish it success, with *one proviso*; that every donation be made on condition of equivalent contributions by the people, and of the appointment of an officer devoted to this subject, to watch over its appro-

priation. Without such conditions an appropriation would only serve as an encouragement to negligence, like the fund of the state of Connecticut; or as in some of the western states, as a bone of contention for the excitement of selfish and party feeling.

Report of the Western Baptist Educational Society.

A Society under this name has employed the Rev. Mr Jacobs to examine the state of schools at the west. We rejoice at this effort, and have been deeply interested by the report. We have only room to say, that the accounts given of the wants of that noble country is as much calculated to excite anxiety and alarm, for its future prospects, as any we have seen, or have given.

Boston Institution for the Blind.

This institution is now removed to the fine building presented by Col. Perkins, and valued at $30,000. A fund was still requisite to pay the current expenses of the institution, and to place it on a permanent basis; and $50,000 have been subscribed for this purpose, in addition to this. The building remains, as an inscription on its front indicates, *the gift of Col. Perkins*. We hope that newspapers which have circulated a different account, disparaging this noble example of liberality, will state the facts as they are. We regret that we must defer some particulars concerning this and its sister institutions, to a future number.

School for Moral Reform.

A school under this name is proposed in Boston, by the Rev. E. M. P. Wells, whose success in reforming the juvenile offenders at South Boston, is well known. No schools are more needed, and we cordially wish success to the plan. Teachers of our high schools have informed us that one of the great difficulties in the way of their success, arises from the habits of insubordination in which the pupils are trained at home; and none but such a school can easily correct them.

Teachers' Seminaries.

We are gratified to find an increasing interest in Teachers' Seminaries, notwithstanding the opposition of some of the conservative party in education. We believe, however, that preparatory schools, for short periods of the year, will be found necessary here as they were in Europe, to open the way for them. Not that we suppose a few weeks' instruction, will alone qualify either sex for sustaining the high responsibilities of forming and guiding the young mind and heart; but because those, who now see the necessity of *some* preparation for the task, will in this way and, perhaps, by this means alone, ever come to entertain just and adequate views of the subject, and to take measures to render the profession of teaching as influential and respectable as its importance demands.

These remarks have been elicited by facts like the following:

School for Teachers in Taunton.

The following Circular has recently been issued, and sent to all the school committees in the vicinity:

'TAUNTON, Oct. 30th, 1833.

'GENTLEMEN; — The School Committee of Taunton, having long experienced the want of proper qualifications in their teachers, and believing that their brethren in other towns in the vicinity have suffered the same inconvenience, and consequently the loss of a large portion of the public money raised for the support of schools, have the pleasure of informing you that they have instituted a school *for Teachers*, which will commence at Tammany Hall, in this village, on Monday, the 4th of November next. It will continue during the month, and longer if circumstances render it expedient. An experienced teacher, the Rev. Samuel Presbury, is engaged as Principal, who will be assisted by others, and occasionally by members of the Committee. Tuition will be modified according to the branches, &c. We respectfully ask your coöperation and aid in inducing those who intend to teach, and who need further instruction, to attend.

F. CRAFTS, *Sec. of T. Sch. Com.*'

We earnestly hope the results of this offer will be favorable. A succeeding article will show that a similar movement has been made in Ohio.

SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS IN OHIO.

The School Examiners for the County of Portage, Ohio, held a meeting at Ravenna, on the 23d of October last, at which several important resolutions were passed expressive of their regret at the present low condition of common schools, and of their determination to make efforts to improve them by the introduction of approved books, and apparatus, and by an increased attention to the qualifications of the candidates who should present themselves for school teaching. One of these resolutions was to establish a preparatory school for teachers of common schools in the county; and several gentlemen having proposed to locate it for the present at Cuyahoga Falls, it was proposed to recommend to those who were expecting to teach the ensuing winter, to avail themselves of this opportunity for improving themselves in their profession. This school was to have been opened on the 11th of November.

The first term is intended as an experiment, and will be short; but the Committee hope for encouragement to pursue a more extended and useful course. For the present the course will be confined to evening lectures, and daily examinations and exercises in the several branches already taught or proposed to be taught in the schools, including the use of Holbrook's and other school apparatus; and to the discussion of a series of questions, respecting proper management and discipline.

One of the resolves passed at Ravenna, was to appoint a Committee 'to draft a memorial to be presented to the legislature of that State, at their next session, praying for a different organization of the board of School Examiners — reducing the number to five or less, and granting them a pecuniary compensation for their services, and making their duties imperative.'

We regard the last as an important movement. The time has been when the governors of some of the New England colonies, especially of New Haven, could perform even their executive duties gratuitously. But since the arrival of a period when the most trifling public employments must be paid, — and liberally too — we know of no reason why school committees should form the only exception, in any part of our country.

SCHOOLS IN VIRGINIA.

The Norfolk Herald of November 8th, after some general remarks on

the state of instruction in our country, and a kind notice of the Annals, observes of the district to which they belong: 'The apathy complained of by the Andover (S. Ag. Soc.) report exists in a tenfold degree here.' 'A large portion of our people are left to grow up in ignorance.' The following article affords some cheering indications of effort for reform:

Institute of Virginia.

A numerous meeting of gentlemen friendly to the interests of education, was held in the chapel of Hampden Sydney College, in Virginia, September 29, 1831, and after some time spent in consultation, they resolved themselves into a society, to be called the Institute of Education of Hampden Sydney College. A committee was then appointed to prepare a constitution for the Institute, and report at a future meeting; and in pursuance of this arrangement, a meeting was held and a constitution was adopted, on the 27th of September, 1832.

The first article of the constitution states the object of the Institute to be, 'to collect and diffuse such information as will be calculated to improve the character of common schools and other literary institutions.'

The means by which the society hope to accomplish these ends are various. The following list of questions, as published in a late number of the Southern Religious Telegraph, embraces some of the more important.

Is there no room for improvement in Common School Education in Virginia?

Is public sentiment correct on this subject?

Is it informed, aroused, demanding improvement?

Are they — to whom is committed the education of children, who impart the first and most durable impressions to the tender mind, who mould the character of our future rulers, their habits of thought, and their methods of investigating truth — are they pursuing the best possible mode of performing their duties?

Are our school books improving throughout the state?

Are all, or a large majority of the children in Virginia enjoying the benefits of a common school education?

The last annual meeting of the society was held on the 26th of September last. The following exercises were announced in the public papers, but we do not learn that any but the two last were delivered.

1. The Annual Address. By President Cushing.
2. A lecture on a Common School System for the Southern States. By Prof. Goodrich.
3. A lecture on the Qualifications of Common School Teachers. By J. B. Tinsley, of Powhatan.
4. A lecture on the Importance of elevating the standard of Female Education. By Rev. William S. Plumer, of Petersburg.
5. A lecture on the Practical Advantages of studying the Languages. By Rev. E. Ballantine.

Improvement of our Colored Population.

A Library and Reading Rooms have recently been opened under favorable auspices by the Phœnix Society of colored people in New York; and a single individual, has made them a present of more than three hundred and thirty volumes of new and valuable books. The objects of the institution are general improvement, and the training of their youth to habits of reading and reflection. They hope by attracting their attention and occupying their leisure hours, to save many from the haunts of vice

and wickedness, and turn their feet from the path of ruin to that of virtue and usefulness. They ask of all who sympathize with them in their condition and efforts, to make their donations of maps, books and journals, through Mr Samuel E. Cornish, their agent.

Their plan of operations for the present, is as follows:

1st. The rooms will be opened Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, from 4 to 9 o'clock, P. M.

2dly. There will be a class of readers at 4, 6, and 8 o'clock. These classes may consist of from 25 to 30 or more — each class having selected its course of reading and appointed its reader whose duty it shall be to read for one hour. All the class shall note prominent parts, and then retire into an adjacent room to converse on the subjects, together with other occurrences of the day, calculated to cultivate the mind and improve the heart.

They purpose to have a course of lectures delivered, on morals, economy, and the arts and sciences generally, under such arrangements as shall benefit all the classes.

We are happy to be able to announce, that Gen. Jones, of the city of Washington, has liberally offered his plantation, about two miles from Arlington, in the District of Columbia, for the purpose of educating African youth.

Common Schools in New Jersey.

The Executive Committee of the Essex County Lyceum, in New Jersey, (which was formed to aid in the great work of promoting the interests of Lyceums, Schools, and Literary Societies generally,) at a meeting held on the 2d of November, resolved, 'that an effort should be made to obtain information relative to every school throughout the county. They hope to secure the co-operation of benevolent and intelligent individuals in every school district for the purpose. In view of the fact that New Jersey has more than 11,000 children destitute of instruction, they ask significantly, 'Does a proportionate share of this *Stygian dye* attach to Old Essex?' If so they are resolved to wipe off the stain. They also propose the formation of a State Lyceum, which should co-operate with the American and other State Lyceums in the diffusion of useful knowledge.

We are glad to find one of the leading counties in the state of New Jersey acting with so much efficiency. We have also been much gratified, by the remarks of Gov. Seeley, in his late message. He urges not only the general importance of the subject, but the necessity of some immediate efforts to improve the schools of the state. He proposes that each town should be obliged to raise three times the amount it receives from the state; that only competent teachers should be employed; and that they should be *liberally paid*. He adds — '*Thousands in our state are growing up in ignorance*; and thousands have arrived at years of maturity, who are unable to read that blessed book that directs them in the way to eternal life.'

Common Schools in Connecticut.

On the 9th of October last, a Convention of the friends of Common Schools was held at Brooklyn, in Connecticut. At this meeting it was resolved to form an association for the improvement of Common Schools in that county. The following extracts from the constitution will show the objects of the Society.

'The members of this Society are to consist of the school visiters, and district committees of the several school Societies in the county, and such others as may be chosen.

'It shall be the duty of the Executive Committee to diffuse information as to the existing state of our schools — to suggest improvements in respect to books, methods of instruction and discipline — to procure a circuit teacher for the county, and aim at the establishment, as soon as may be, of a seminary for teachers — and in general, to devise the ways and means necessary for the accomplishment of these objects.

'At each annual meeting, this committee shall make a report of their doings, and the state of schools.'

At a meeting held by the Society, Nov. 6, it was voted that all the officers of the Society, and all the ministers of the county should be permanent members.

We need scarcely repeat an opinion we have often expressed, that such associations are the first and best means for the improvement of our schools.

La Fayette College.

This college, it will be recollected, is substituted for the Pennsylvania Manual Labor School, but is located at Easton, Pennsylvania. We gave an account of its establishment in our number for February last.

From the second annual report of the Institution, it appears, that within the last year the whole amount charged for boarding, lodging, tuition and shop-room to 52 students, is $3824.37; and that the whole amount actually earned and credited is $926.01, or nearly one fourth of the charge. There were difficulties, however, which it is hoped will be removed by another year. When full opportunity shall be afforded and embraced of working the complete three hours required during the whole term, the amount earned will be about four tenths of the whole charge.

Franklin Self-Supporting Institution.

An institution under this name has lately been opened at Shelburn Falls Village, a retired spot near Greenfield, Mass., in order to give to youth, of the Baptist denomination, instruction in the higher branches. Each scholar is expected to labor three or four hours daily, on a farm of 270 acres, purchased for the purpose. A female department is connected with it. It will embrace fifty scholarships, and $100 is received as sufficient to found a scholarship. We cordially wish success to every effort of this kind. The institution now contains 137 pupils, half of whom are females.

Maine Wesleyan Seminary.

From a catalogue of the Maine Wesleyan Seminary at Readfield, we learn that the number of students now in this Institution is 167; of whom 130 are males and 37 females. The number of students employed in the agricultural department is 10; in the mechanical department, 40. The 'department of industry' is constantly filled. It is contemplated to erect a boarding house, so that the privileges of labor may be extended to a much larger number.

Education in Indiana.

There is one peculiarity in the regulations of this State respecting schools. The Legislature has adopted a course which will make *crimes aid the cause of Education*, by directing that all fines and forfeitures arising from criminal causes, in the respective counties, shall go to constitute

a common fund for the support of a county school, of high standing. In some of the counties this already amounts to a considerable sum, and they are erecting seminaries, and are in want of competent teachers. The whole State presents a wide field for the establishment of common and primary schools. — *Mr Jacob's Tour in the West.*

MERCER INSTITUTE, GREENE COUNTY, GEORGIA.

We learn from a late Charleston Observer, that during the past year the Baptist Convention of that State have had an institution embracing manual labor in Greene county, which has accommodated 39 students; all of whom, except two, have boarded at the institution. So far as can be seen from so short an experiment, everything appears prosperous; and the Executive Committee, in their first annual report, from which we derive this information, state, that the 'literary improvements' of the students 'have fully realized the general anticipations of their friends, and the result of their labors promises the most happy success of the experiment of uniting labor and study.' One evidence of this is found in the fact stated by the committee, that 'about 100 new applications are already made for the next year,' although not more than 80, at most, can be accommodated. Every student is required to labor three hours a day; and in the case of those under sixteen, the price of this labor is deducted from their board. Those *over* 16, pay $4 a month regularly, in addition to their labor. This institution, though under the control of the Baptist denomination, admits its students without reference to their *peculiar sentiments*, though it *requires* unexceptionable morals, and *prefers* professors of religion.

NOTICES.

First Lessons in Algebra, being an easy introduction to that science, designed for the use of Academies and Common Schools, by Ebenezer Bailey. Boston: Carter, Hendee, & Co. 1833. 12mo. pp. 228.

We were pleased at this attempt to bring a subject within the reach of younger pupils, which our experiments long since satisfied us was enveloped in unnecessary mystery. Our *first impressions* on examining the work, were not favorable, in consequence of its apparent prolixity. But we soon found the truth of the maxim, that careful observation alone can estimate the results of patient and experimental labor. The principles are introduced and illustrated in that simple, natural course, which a parent would follow in conversation with a child; a result which did not surprise us, when we learned that every page was the subject of experiment in a class of novices, before it was published. We think that there are still 'unknown quantities' to give the mind all the exercise it needs at that age; and we congratulate the young, that they may thus be enabled to act as rational beings in the solution of puzzling questions, instead of following blindfold the old rules of 'Fellowship, Barter' & Co. — by which we were inducted into the mysteries of combination in numbers.

President Dwight's Decisions of Questions discussed by the Senior class of Yale College, in 1813 and 1814. From Stenographic notes, by Theodore Dwight, jun. New York: J. Leavitt. Boston: Crocker & Brewster, 1833. 12mo, pp. 348.

We have given an extract from the MS. of this interesting book, and are grati-

fied to announce its appearance. It contains decisions on a great variety of questions, most of which are moral or political, and some of temporary interest, or doubtful value. But all of them will assist the reader in understanding the manner in which a teacher addressed himself to his pupils, who with some obvious defects, excited peculiar interest and veneration in those whom he taught. Of course, much is lost in separating a single lesson from those which preceded and followed it on other subjects; and from the manner of recording them. But those who heard him, will still find his spirit lingering in these pages.

Elements of Chemistry, with practical exercises, illustrated by 140 engravings on wood, for the use of schools. By Francis J. Grund. Boston: Carter, Hendee & Co. 12mo. pp. 382.

It cannot be expected by any who know the labors of a periodical, or consider its nature, that we can ascertain, or certify to, the accuracy of extended works which we notice, especially on science. We can only speak of its plan, its methods of illustration, or its selections, and point out some of its excellences or defects. The work before us, for example, would require the whole labor of a month. In examining it as we are able to do, we are dissatisfied with one part of its arrangement, we mean the attempt to make the pupils familiar with all the apparatus, and most of the abstract principles of the science, at the very outset, and we are somewhat surprised at this defect. We have been highly gratified in examining the remainder of the work. The explanations are clear, the distinctions strongly marked, the order of arrangement natural; and the illustrations surpass in beauty and (if we may use the term) in *life*, any which we have ever seen in a school book. The mechanical execution is excellent.

We regret to find in this lucid and interesting exhibition of the *laws* of nature, not a single reference to the great *Lawgiver*; and we enter our protest against this neglect. Every book of science *for youth* which describes the works and productions of nature, is bound, in our view, to refer to the Author of nature. The atheist would desire no more, than that God should not be seen or acknowledged by the young, in his works.

Peter Parley's Method of Teaching Arithmetic to Children. With numerous Engravings. Boston: Carter & Hendee, 1833. Square 16mo, pp. 144.

Like the other works by the same author, this little book is rendered highly inviting by its agreeable and simple style, by its numerous and beautiful engravings, as well as by its neatness of execution. It has also other merits. By providing first lessons in arithmetic from *objects*, and from those with which the child is familiar, we prevent that early disgust which children often acquire with the whole subject. At the same time, we suspect that many a child will follow the example of some urchins, who carefully secure all the butter, and throw the bread to the dogs. There is not a little danger of rendering dishes so savory as to spoil the taste for simple food; and this is the tendency of too many of the works of this author. We are sorry, also, not to find more evidence of that attention to the natural progress of the mind, in arranging the questions, which is necessary to render a child's book of permanent value. Of its immediate usefulness and success we have little doubt.

Book of Commerce by Sea and Land; exhibiting its connection with agriculture, the arts and manufactures; to which are added a History of Commerce and a Chronological table, designed for the use of schools. Illustrated by a Map and numerous Engravings. Boston: Allen & Ticknor, 1833. Square 12mo, pp. 186.

The preface of the author describes this work more correctly than its title:—'This little book is devoted to a description of the leading articles of commerce; of the animal, vegetable and mineral kingdom, including an account of their mode of cultivation, preparation, or manufacture, where they are found, where and to what extent they are exported, &c.'

The style is animated and clear. The engravings were originally good; but the beauty, and even the distinctness of many of them is injured, as it always

must be in a stereotype work. The work presents a mass of information not easily obtained elsewhere; and we think it will be both interesting and useful to children as a reading book or an evening companion, — '*provided nevertheless,*' they are not already too much overloaded with books and mental occupation. Still we think there are some serious defects in the proportion of its parts. A single anecdote of the mule occupies more, for example, than the whole account of that curious and important commercial instrument, the telegraph. The name gives little idea of the work; but it would, perhaps, be difficult to find any appropriate title for such a collection of facts.

The First Class Reader; a selection of Exercises in Reading, from standard British and American authors, in Prose and Verse, for the use of schools in the United States. By B. D. Emerson. 12mo, pp. 276.

Second Class Reader; designed for the use of the middle class of schools in the United States. By B. D. Emerson. 12mo. pp. 168. Boston: Russell, Odiorne & Co.

It is desirable in our view, that new reading books should be issued for the young, as well as for the old; and it is one mode of forming a library of select literature in each family. We are pleased with these selections, for we think they are executed on the plan proposed; that 'each extract should contain some useful truth—something of more importance than the mere amusement of a passing hour.' The value of some of the articles for the young; as 'The Popkins Family,' and 'The deception practised by Columbus,' is doubtful. But we are particularly gratified to find so many pieces of a religious character, (yet so far as we observe, not at all sectarian,) and especially to find extracts from 'the best of books — that children may not be left 'without God in the world,' in which their characters are formed.

Young's Mathematics. Messrs Carey & Lea have published the Elements of Analytical Geometry; of the Integral Calculus, and of the Differential Calculus, by Mr Young, whose treatises on Algebra and Geometry we have formerly noticed.

EDUCATION CONVENTION IN KENTUCKY.

Convention of Teachers.

We have just received an account of the proceedings of the Conventions held at Lexington, Kentucky, during the last month, in time to add to this number an outline of their proceedings.

On the 6th of November, the Convention of Teachers assembled and organized in the chapel of the University — Rev I. Van Doren, Chairman, and Mr W. H. Tyler, Secretary. Fifty Teachers, from various parts of the State, were present. The Convention then listened to an address, by Dr Beecher, 'On the Dignity and Importance of the Profession of Teaching,' of which a copy was requested for publication. In the afternoon, the question was introduced — 'What can be done to elevate the standard of intellectual improvement among us? which gave rise to a very spirited discussion, in which Presidents Young and Peers, Messrs Benedict, Gale and L. H. Van Doren, took part.' A vote of thanks was passed to Pres. Peers, for his efforts in the cause.

On the 7th November, resolutions were discussed and passed, earnestly recommending *County Associations of Teachers*, with regular exercises and discussions, *previously prepared*, for mutual improvement in their profession; and the appointment of *Corresponding Committees* throughout the State. It was also recommended that these associations report annually, and fully, the statistics of schools in their counties. An annual *State Convention* was also proposed, in order to concentrate the efforts of all.

On the 8th, it was decided to recommend, to the General Education

Convention, then sitting, the expediency of raising funds to employ an efficient *General Agent* to travel throughout the State, organize associations, collect information, and in other ways endeavor to promote the diffusion of knowledge. The remainder of the day was spent in listening to an address before the General Convention, and in discussing and adopting the 'Constitution for the Kentucky Association of Professional Teachers.' Officers were then appointed for this association, on the nomination of a committee. One gentleman from each county of the State was also selected, who should be requested to deliver addresses on the subject of education, and to exert himself in forming a county association.

After passing votes of thanks, and requesting editors throughout the State to publish their proceedings, the Convention adjourned to meet in Frankfort, on the last Wednesday in August, 1834.

General Education Convention.

The General Education Convention was called to order in the College chapel, on the 7th November, by President Peers; on whose nomination Dr Ferguson, of Louisville, was chosen President, and Col. Garrard of Bourbon county, Vice-President; W. Tannehill was chosen Secretary. About 150 gentlemen were present, as delegates from the several counties; and Messrs Beecher, Drake, Symmes and Bullard, of Cincinnati—Kirk and Romeyn of Albany, and Edwards and Storrs of Massachusetts, were invited to take seats as honorary members.

The convention was opened with prayer by Bishop Smith. A committee was appointed to distribute several thousand *numbers* of the Annals and Reporter, (forwarded by the Editor, by the desire of Pres. Peers,) and to tender the thanks of the convention to the Editor. Copies of the report of the Legislative Committee on Education were presented by President Peers, and accepted with similar courtesy. A committee of arrangements was appointed. A statistical account of the common schools of Kentucky was presented by Pres. Peers; and 5000 copies ordered to be printed. The remainder of the morning was occupied in hearing the address of Dr Beecher, before mentioned.

In the afternoon, the committee for the preparation of Business proposed several resolutions. The first, advised a convention at Frankfort, on the 9th of Jan., for the purpose of organizing a State Common School Education Society; and a committee to prepare a constitution; and the second expressed the opinion of the Convention that 'a Colllege for teachers is exceedingly desirable and important.' In the evening an address 'on Physical Education' was delivered by Dr Caldwell, which was resumed and concluded on the following evening.

On the 8th Nov. the meeting of the Convention was opened with prayer by the Rev Dr. Fishback. Dr Drake of Cincinnati delivered an address, 'On the moral and intellectual education of Males and Females respectively.' The resolutions already mentioned were passed, and a third resolution advising that the counties be divided into districts for schools, and that legislative provision be made for the raising of funds in each, to support a teacher. A central committee was appointed to address the people of the State; and another to collect information concerning a college for teachers.

A resolution was then offered, to lie over till the next convention, proposing a premium for the best text-book for schools, On the constitution and laws of the United States. The same disposition was made of the recommendation of the convention of teachers, to employ an agent.

Resolutions were then passed requesting each member of the convention to hand to the central committee a list of subjects proper for the consider-

ation of the next convention, and giving the committee full power. Copies of the proceedings were ordered to be sent to ministers of the gospel, and editors, throughout the State; and the convention adjourned, to meet at Frankfort on the 9th day of January, 1834.

A spirited address to the people of Kentucky is published by the executive committee, among whom are Presidents Young and Peers, and Bishop Smith.

CORRESPONDENCE.

[We have again to acknowledge a number of letters expressing deep interest and promising cordial support for this work, one of which contained a subscription of $100, for the purchase of sets, and another of $50. We regret to say, however, that the amount now promised, does not exceed *one third* of what is necessary to purchase the whole, and relieve the work. The prospect of its going on, *if once relieved from past burdens*, is now *certain*.

We cannot withhold the following extracts, exhibiting the feelings of a teacher concerning the work.]

Dear Sir; — As you expressed a wish that your subscribers should address you, relative to the Annals, you will pardon me for taking this liberty. Permit me, then, as an individual of humble pretensions and of inferior standing in society, but engaged in teaching, to give a few thoughts on the various topics discussed in the 'Annals,' during the last three years, and in particular, on the subject of common education, which of all earthly subjects, bears with greatest weight on my mind.

I have been a subscriber for the last two years; but in addition to the two Vols. published in the course of that time, I have the Vol. of 1830, which has been carefully perused. I can safely say that no work of mere human character has in any way been to me of such value as the 'Annals of Education.' Not even the instruction I have received from various teachers, can in any degree, be compared with that afforded by your work. I have found some faithful teachers, it is true; but their instructions have had a bearing on particular sciences, and not on *education*, and *the science of sciences* — that of teaching. Different circumstances in life are calculated to make deep and permanent changes in the human mind; but nothing has wrought such changes for me as the 'Annals,' and its late colleague, the 'Education Reporter.' The latter was to me a valuable work, and I sincerely regretted its failure, but have never regretted that, by this failure, the former came into my hands. As it regards my future subscription, I would merely say, as long as you continue the work, my name may stand on your list of subscribers, be it longer or shorter — even to the end of life. Poverty may stare me in the face — as it often has — and present a future, dark and gloomy; still, as long as bread and water are sufficient for the support of the body, I fear not that I shall be able to pay the small annual sum for a work so valuable.

To say, merely, that I *like* the 'Annals,' would indeed be saying but little; for the same might be said of many of the ephemeral productions of the day, whose materials for their mechanical parts, often outlive their *utility*. I like the 'Annals' because it points out the sure course to be pursued in training our youth for usefulness *in the present state of existence*, while it keeps in view the grand and ultimate object of all human operations — *preparation for eternity*. While other works may have done some good, the 'Annals' has been, and is still doing an im-

mense amount, wherever it can gain a firm foundation, and a standing with those who will look at things as they are, and at the same time, strive to make them what they ought to be.

And what is the secret of all this, if such it may be called? Certainly it lies in *this* — Nature's path is faithfully followed in everything you recommend. You have told us, and with much truth, that in cultivating the *intellect*, the *body* and the *heart* must not be neglected. No course of education, it seems to me, can by any means be called complete, unless it embraces these three points.

And what is the course of instruction and education generally prevalent in our country? From the nursery to the university, the predominating point is *mere* acquisition of knowledge, without regard to the manner in which that knowledge is acquired. An education — if such it may be called — is often acquired at the expense of the physical system, or of moral principle, and not unfrequently of *both*. If we look at the foundation of the evils, in a course of education, shall we not find that in *the cradle*, is the beginning of that wrong course which is too often pursued through life? Is it not owing to the *extremely* defective state of *Female Education* that many errors now exist in our schools? The *mother* must be the moving power, in the march of mind. On the education of females, and the alarming defects that now prevail, even among those who profess to be educated, or to have '*finished their education*,' at least, I would gladly say much, but one sheet is not sufficient for everything.

The subject of Common Schools is often brought before your readers in the Annals. I confess it is one of which my heart is full, and one which, to a great extent, employs my waking moments and my nightly dreams. And it is one on which the patriot, the philanthropist, and the Christian, should dwell with absorbing interest. But when we look over the face of our country and see the miserable hovels, under the *name* of school-houses, that may be found on the bleak hills, the barren sand banks, and even on the marshy grounds of New England — when we find the interior construction of these hovels, worse if possible than the location, and this crowded, almost to suffocation, with the tender infants that are sent thither to be '*out of the way*' of unfeeling, almost unnatural, parents; — when our schools are *kept* (not *taught*) by those who can hardly manage the affairs of the *farm-yard* — and, most of all to be deplored, when we see the apathy that prevails among those who are immediately and directly concerned with our schools, we are almost led to say of our country, 'The glory has departed!'

Perhaps, Sir, I have said enough to show you my feelings on the subject of education, if nothing else; and it is now time that I bring these unconnected, hasty remarks to a close. Were I to specify the particular topics and articles in the Annals which have been of interest to me, I should be under the necessity of naming a large number. I will merely remark, that the 'Practical Lessons,' and the 'Sketches of Hofwyl,' have been of immediate utility; because many of the principles brought forth in the latter, and no small part of the former, with some variations, have been reduced to practice in the school in which I am now engaged. It is my sincere and ardent wish that the 'Annals' may yet continue, and be a blessing to our country for years yet to come. I have obtained but few names for your list, only because my influence with those who ought to have the work, is very limited. As the child of poverty, but yet of contentment, I will do all in the cause of education that my limited efforts will allow.






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